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ABSTRACT

The research had four objectives: (1) to describe home-school-community relations in selected IGE schools; (2) to explain the home-school-community relations and the implementation of IGE political terms using issue analysis and policy acceptance analysis; (3) to generate hypotheses from the data gathered through objectives 1 and 2, and relate them to the McCarty-Ramsey community typology model and the zone of tolerance concept; (4) to generate practical recommendations for the public school audience. The units of analysis for the case studies were four elementary schools which had recently implemented an IGE instructional program. As an exploratory study, the research used a mixture of anthropological field methods, but relied on focused interviews with nominated and positional individuals. The research analyzed the process of IGE implementation in the hypothesized four different types of neighborhood school-communities by using the analytical framework of initiation, information, accommodation, and legalized (acceptance) in the school, central office, and school-community sub-publics. Issues were analyzed in the four school-communities. The political variance of the four school-communities suggested that issues would vary in number and resolution. Nineteen hypotheses were generated from the data. Eleven recommendations were written for the public school audience. (Author/SJL)

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TECHNICAL REPORT NO. 360
(Part 1 of 3 Parts)

home-school-community relations as a political process: four exploratory case studies of the implementation of individually guided education (ige) and home-school-community relations

DECEMBER 1975

WISCONSIN RESEARCH
AND DEVELOPMENT
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COGNITIVE LEARNING

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Technical Report No. 360
(Part 1 of 3 Parts)

HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS AS A POLITICAL PROCESS: FOUR EXPLORATORY CASE STUDIES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION (IGE) AND HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

by

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Report from the Project on
Organization for Instructional Administrative Arrangements

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Janice, and children, Erika and Melissa, for a better future.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
	Dedication	iv
	List of Figures	vii
	Abstract	ix
I	Background and Review of Literature	1
	Related Literature	3
	Community Analysis	4
	Community Acceptance of Innovation	31
	Home-School-Community Relations: A Functional Perspective	47
	Significance	62
	Organization of the Dissertation	63
II	Design and Methodology	65
	Conceptual Frameworks	67
	Design	77
	Methodology	79
	Limitations	91
III	Presentation of Four Case Studies	93
	Inert School-Community: Rural City	93
	Factional School-Community: Kennedy Elementary School	120
	Pluralist School-Community: Woodrow Wilson Elementary School	160
	Dominated School-Community: Kenyatta Elementary School	186
IV	Analysis, Reanalysis, Recommendations, Summary	211
	Community Typology	213
	Policy Process	240
	Zone of Tolerance	253
	Conceptual Frameworks Reanalyzed	267
	Recommendations for Practitioners	285
	Summary	288
	Bibliography	291

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont.)

Page

Appendicies

A - McCarthy-Ramsey Model Checklist 297

B - Phase I Interview Schedule 303

C - Phase II Interview Schedule 305

D - Interview Respondent Selection Summaries 313

E - Demographic Data 319

F - Case Study Outline 335

8

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1-1	Carver and Crowe's typology	18
1-2	McCarthy/Ramsey model	20
1-3	Zaltman's summary of the acceptance of change	36
1-4	Zone of tolerance	46
2-1	Easton's simplified model	68
3-1	Elm Hollow home-school-community relations programs and activities	115
3-2	Kennedy Elementary school's home-school-community relations programs and activities	139
3-3	Woodrow Wilson's home-school-community relations programs and activities	173
3-4	Kenyatta Elementary school's home-school-community relations programs and activities	200
4-1	McCarthy/Ramsey model	214
4-2	Inert school-community: Rural City and Elm Hollow issues and actors	219
4-3	Factional school-community: Kenedy elementary school issues and actors	227-9
4-4	Pluralist school-community: Woodrow Wilson elementary school issues and actors	234
4-5	Dominated school-community: Kenyatta elementary school issues and actors	239
4-6	Inert school community: Rural City and Elm Hollow policy process acceptance pattern	243
4-7	Factional school-community: Kennedy elementary school policy process acceptance pattern	246

LIST OF FIGURES (cont.)

Figure Page

4-8 Pluralist school-community: Wilson elementary school policy process acceptance pattern 248

4-9 Dominated school-community: Kenyatta elementary school policy process acceptance pattern 252

4-10 Zone of tolerance 254

4-11 Inert school-community: Rural City and Elm Hollow elementary school zone of tolerance 256

4-12 Factional school-community: Kennedy elementary school zone of tolerance 260

4-13 Pluralist school-community: Woodrow Wilson elementary schoool zone of tolerance 262

4-14 Dominated school-community: Kenyatta elementary school zone of tolerance 265

ABSTRACT

A review of the literature on community typology, acceptance of change, and school-community relations did not show any pattern of verifiable hypotheses at the elementary school attendance level. For this study, home-school-community relations was defined as the effective (1) resolution of actual or potential conflict in the home-school-community environment, and (2) allocation of scarce economic resources, differing social values, and unequal political power.

The research had four objectives: (1) To describe home-school-community relations in selected IGE schools; (2) to explain the home-school-community relations and the implementation of IGE in political terms using issue analysis and policy acceptance analysis; (3) to generate hypotheses from the data gathered through objectives one and two, and relate them to the McCarty Ramsey community typology model and the zone of tolerance concept; (4) to generate practical recommendations for the public school audience.

The units of analysis for the case studies were four elementary schools which had recently implemented an IGE instructional program. As an exploratory study, the research used a mixture of anthropological field methods, but relied on focused interviews with nominated and positional individuals. Interviewing was done in two phases. Using the nominational, positional, and randomized techniques, six members of the

Wisconsin Research and Development home-school-community relations team conducted first phase interviewing at eight research sites to write basic case studies on home-school-community relations programs and activities and the history of the implementation of IGE. The eight elementary schools chosen for the first phase of the study were selected from a list of schools nominated by state IGE coordinators. From the first phase of research four school-communities were chosen by having members of the first phase research team respond to a forty item check list which determined the level and style of political pressure in the home-school-community environment according to the McCarty-Ramsey model. Phase two interviewing was conducted with nominated and positional individuals drawn from phase one of the interviewing. The final number of interviews numbered about fifty in each community and totaled two hundred and eleven interviews in the four research sites.

The McCarty-Ramsey typology was used to form working hypotheses on the four school-communities. The research analyzed the process of IGE implementation in the hypothesized four different types of neighborhood school-communities by using the analytical framework of initiation, information, accommodation, and legalization (acceptance) in the school, central office, and school-community sub-publics. Issues were analyzed in the four school-communities. Again the political variance of the four school-communities suggested that issues would vary in number and resolution. Finally, the zone of tolerance, defined by Moynihan and McGivney as "the latitude or area of maneuverability granted (or yielded) to the leadership of the schools by the local community" was analyzed in the four elementary school-communities.

The McCarty-Ramsey model proved useful with slight adaptations at the elementary school attendance level to help explain the level and style of political interaction. The four phases of the policy process were a useful conceptual map for analyzing the acceptance pattern of IGE in the school-community environment. However, the fourth phase was changed from legalization to acceptance given the operant conditions in the field. The zone of tolerance concept also proved to be a useful, if inexact, conceptual tool. Refinement of survey instrumentation would allow closer scrutiny of the zone of tolerance. Nineteen hypotheses were generated from the data. Eleven recommendations were written for the public school audience.

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Using a variety of anthropological field methods, exploratory case study research was conducted on the implementation of the Individually Guided Education program and home-school-community relations programs and activities at four politically different IGE elementary schools. Individually Guided Education (hereafter IGE) is an educational innovation which has grown from nine pilot schools in 1967 to over 2000 schools in 1975. An IGE program includes for students a systematic individualized instructional program and continuous progress, and for staff, a differentiated teaching staff with shared decision-making.

Home-school-community relations, or as it usually appears in the literature school-community relations, is a term under which at least ten different sets of concepts and literatures may be found.[1] For this study, home-school-community relations was defined as the "effective (1) resolution of actual or potential conflict in the home-school-community environment and (2) allocation of scarce economic resources, differing social values, and unequal political power."[2] The researcher assumed that participants in the home-school-community relations process were political actors with differing values, access to information, and power over the timing or staging of programs or activities. The definition of community for this research stressed (1) a place of residence, (2) interaction and communication systems, and (3) a common situational definition.

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[1] Theodore J. Jenson and Frederick Staub, "School-Community-Relations," REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, 31, (October, 1961) pp. 406-413.

The research had four major objectives:

1. To describe implementation of IGE and home-school-relations in selected IGE schools.
2. To explain the implementation of IGE and home-school-relations programs and activities in a political framework using issue analysis and policy analysis.
3. To generate hypotheses from the data gathered through objectives one and two, and relate them to existing theories particularly the McCarty/Ramsey community typology and also the Moynihan/McGivney zone of tolerance concept.
4. To generate practical recommendations for the public school audience.

The conceptual framework employed in the study hypothesized that local elementary school communities vary in the level of environmental political pressure on the teachers, principal, central office administrators and school board members. In THE SCHOOL MANAGERS[3] McCarty and Ramsey conceptualized the interaction among superintendents—school boards--communities as occurring differently in four politically different communities e. g., inert, dominated, pluralist, and factional. This research used their four community types for the political variance in the sample of research sites. Another theoretical perspective in the study was the policy-making framework of initiation, information, accommodation, and legitimation. This framework was placed over the implementation of IGE and the school-community to see if the four communities would vary in their acceptance of the IGE instructional program by political type. Issues were analyzed in the four-school-communities; again, the political variance of the four school communities suggested that issues would vary in number and resolution according to the political nature of the elementary school attendance area. Finally, the zone of tolerance, defined as the "latitude or area of maneuverability granted (or yielded) to the leadership of the schools by the local community," adapted and enlarged from Corwin's local--cosmopolitan orientation by Moynihan and McGivney[4] was analyzed in the four elementary schools-communities with the implementation of IGE as the critical variable.

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[2] Marvin J. Fruth, B. Dean Bowles, and Richard H. Moser, "Home-School-Community Relations for IGE," (Wisconsin Research and Development Center, 1974), p. 1 (Mimeographed).

[3] Donald J. McCarty and Charles E. Ramsey, THE SCHOOL MANAGERS (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Publishing Corporation, 1971).

Related Literature

The conceptual framework and objectives outlined above suggest literature encompassing three inter-related areas: (1) community analysis including power structure and typology; (2) community acceptance of innovation; and (3) school-community relations.

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[4] Joseph McGivney and William Moynihan, "School and Community," TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD 74, 2 (December, 1972), p. 221.

Community Analysis

Review of the literature in community analysis has a connective political theme of who gets what, where, when and how. Treatment of the methodological and substantive issues in community analysis will lead to an analysis of the etiology of community typology. Finally, literature will be reviewed which takes a political perspective at the school attendance level, over community control issues, and over the topic of conflict resolution.

Controversies over Community Power Structure Research

Community power analysts became engaged in scholarly debate during the 1950's and 1960's over three issues: methodology, influentials, and structure.

Methodology.--Early community power analysts like the Lynds[5], Warner[6], and Hollingshed[7] focused their studies on persons in formal positions of authority, i.e. the mayor, common council president, etc. Hunter[8] used a reputational technique to enlarge influence patterns beyond individuals in formal positions. The reputational technique asks issue actors to nominate others who are knowledgeable and influential on a given issue or issues. Dahl[9] and Polsby[10] introduced event analysis as a methodological technique to analyze who actually made what decisions, where, when, and why. Event analysis was a direct attempt to refute Hunter's reputational methodology. As will be discussed later, methodologies have a direct bearing on influentials and the descriptions of power structure.

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[5] Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, MIDDLETOWN, (New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1929) and ________, MIDDLETOWN IN TRANSITION, (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1937).

[6] J. Lloyd Warner, SOCIAL CLASS IN AMERICA (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1949).

[7] August B. Hollingshed, ELMSTOWN'S YOUTH (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1949).

[8] Floyd Hunter, COMMUNITY POWER STRUCTURE: A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKERS (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1953).

Influentials.--After using the positional methodology, researchers could only conclude that influentials were people in formal positions of authority. However, the Hunter reputational technique led to individuals both in formal positions of authority and individuals not in formal positions of authority because the technique specifically asked for nominations of actors both in positions and outside as well. Rather than simply stressing the formal positions or nominating actors by reputation, Dahl's event analysis pinpointed the actual actors on a given issue and included both formal and informal decisional actors.

Structure.--The positional methodology lends itself to the realization that communities are essentially monolithic in nature. A monolithic community would be controlled by persons in formal positions of authority with little direct or indirect influence by actors outside the formal positions. Hunter's reputational approach created a power elite with a pyramidal structure. Hunter stressed that as decisions rose in importance influence would be determined by an increasingly smaller, select group of formal and informal actors. In contradiction, Dahl's event analysis led community power analysis to a pluralist structure. In the pluralist structure, decisions were influenced by several competing special interest groups rather than formal authorities or power elites.

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[9] Robert A. Dahl, WHO GOVERNS? (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1961).

[10] Polsby, Nelson W., COMMUNITY POWER AND POLITICAL THEORY (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1963).

Various attempts were made in the 1960's to resolve the methodological and substantive issues raised above.[11] Presthus[12] successfully combined the reputational approach and event analysis methodologies in a study of one community. Presthus concluded that less than one percent of the population will ever be involved in the actual decision-making in the community. Freeman[13] and his colleagues used the reputational, event, positional, and indicators of social activity to determine key decision-makers in Syracuse. Freeman concludes that each technique yielded a different set of leaders and acknowledges that city-wide decisions may have been too large a unit of analysis. Walton[14] divided the findings of thirty-nine published empirical community power studies into eight methodological and thirteen community characteristics hypotheses. Using these twenty-one independent variables and community power structure as the dependent variable, Walton determined ten confirmed and thirteen negative results. He concluded that the type of community power structure found could be determined by the methodology employed, i.e. a reputational methodology would yield a pyramidal elite, event analysis would yield a pluralist structure. In his interpretative conclusions, Walton stressed a direction for community power research which gives more attention to theoretically based propositions and problem induced research, more longitudinal studies, more adequate conceptual schemes, and use of comparative methods.

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[11] Three community power structure readers appeared in the 1960's and contain useful material: Terry N. Clark, ed., COMMUNITY STRUCTURE and DECISION-MAKING, COMPARATIVE ANALYSES (San Francisco: Chandler Pub. Co., 1968); also Michael Aiken and Paul E. Mott, eds., THE STRUCTURE OF COMMUNITY POWER, (N.Y.: Random House, 1968); also Alan Rosenthal, ed., GOVERNING EDUCATION (Garden City: Doubleday & Co., Inc. 1969).

[12] Robert Presthus, MEN AT THE TOP: A STUDY IN COMMUNITY POWER (N.Y.: Oxford University Press, 1964).

[13] Linton C. Freeman, Thomas J. Fararo, Warner Bloomberg Jr., and Morris H. Sunshine, "Locating Leaders in Local Communities: A Comparison of Some Alternative Approaches," THE SEARCH FOR COMMUNITY POWER, edited by Willis D. Hawley and Fredick M. Wirt, pp. 189-199.

Community Power Structure: Local Politics of Education

While the sociologists and political scientists carried on their scholarly debates in the 1960's regarding the substantive and methodological issues of community power, a "politics of education" was taking shape as a distinct sphere of inquiry which embraced sociology, political science, and education. Moreover. given the constitutional, legal framework of education in the United States, the politics of education emerged with a three-tiered focus: federal, state and local. The local politics of education has usually been concerned with district-wide politics, policy making, school boards, superintendents, and community influence. The question of a school or neighborhood politics of education will be discussed later.

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[14] John Walton, "A Systematic Survey of Community Power Research," THE STRUCTURE OF COMMUNITY POWER, ed. by Michael Aiken and Paul Mott, (N.Y.: Random House, 1968), pp. 443-463.

It was only natural that not only would researchers use community power structure analysis in their efforts to understand decision-making in the educational arena but also that they would disagree on the substantive and methodological community analysis issues raised above.

Bloomberg and Sunshine's[15] research in four school-district communities indicates that communities may vary in structure and community leaders power will be located in both formal and informal bases. Ralph Kimbrough[16] used Hunter's reputational techniques in studying four rural southern school districts. Kimbrough concluded that decision-making is made by a relatively few persons who hold top positions of influence in the informal power structure. Alan Rosenthal's dissertation research[17] could be used to argue against Kimbrough's generalizations of the importance of influentials outside the formal positions of educational authority. Rosenthal did case studies of two communities in New Jersey, one a suburb and another a city, to determine the patterns of influence in decision-making. Rosenthal found that superintendents made virtually all decisions on curriculum-related items. When the superintendent had issues which had to go before the public, he marshalled support through political means. David Minar[18] suggested that since education is normally set apart from the other formalized political systems, community influences on education would be episodic and usually pluralist in nature. Minar concluded that research attention should be focused on the educational sector of the power structure, and researchers should not generally bother to integrate the other formalized power structures into the educational power structure except where they were key to a specific issue. Minar's later research[19] investigated the relation between electoral conflict and community demographic characteristics and concluded that high status communities have less conflict because they are less differentiated along class lines, and they have more people with conflict management skills than do lower status communities. Boyd[20] followed Minar's work with a two-fold study designed to (1) investigate factors which operate to minimize or contribute to conflict and (2) test Minar's earlier studies which showed levels of participation dependent upon management skills of administrators. Boyd recommended that programs be developed to improve the political consciousness of school authorities.

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[15] Warner Bloomberg, Jr. and Morris Sunshine, SUBURBAN POWER STRUCTURES AND PUBLIC EDUCATION (Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963).

[16] Ralph B. Kimbrough, POLITICAL POWER AND EDUCATION DECISION-MAKING (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1964).

[17] Alan Rosenthal, "Community Leadership and Public School Policies: 2 Case Studies," (unpublished Ph.D, dissertation, Princeton Univ., 1961).

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[18] David W. Minar, "Community Characteristics, Conflict, and Power Structures," in THE POLITICS OF EDUCATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY, ed. by Robert S. Cahill and Stephen P. Heneley (Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1964), pp. 125-143.

[19] David W. Minar, "The Community Basis of Conflict in School System Politics," AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW, 31 (1966), pp. 825-835.

[20] William Boyd, "Community Status and Conflict in Suburban School Politics," AERA Presentation, 1972 (Mimeographed).

Cahill and Hencley's THE POLITICS OF EDUCATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY is a report of a symposia at the University of Oregon. Cahill maintains that communities may vary in power structure and suggests an eclectic research technique.[21] Kimbrough, in that same volume, states that the reason communities might vary is that there may be different normative environments relative to decisions.[22] Cunningham cites the need for the development of a community typology.[23]

Pellegrin[24] summarized research in three communities with populations of 4,000, 12,000 and 25,000 and concluded that:

1. Influentials in school decisions are positional in the three communities.
2. Administrators have the most latent influence, especially the superintendent and his top aides,

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[21] Robert S. Cahill, "Three Themes on the Politics of Education," in THE POLITICS OF EDUCATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY, ed. by Robert S. Cahill and Stephen Hencley (Danville, Ill: Interstate Publishers, 1964) pp. 53-54.

[22] Ralph B. Kimbrough, "Development of a Concept of Social Power," in POLITICS OF EDUCATION IN THE LOCAL COMMUNITY, ed. by Cahill and Hencley, pp. 93-110.

[23] Luvern L. Cunningham, "Community Power Structure: Implications for Education," in Cahill and Hencley, pp. 27-50.

[24] Roland J. Pellegrin, "Community Power Structure and Educational Decision Making in the Local Community," (Paper presented at 1965 Nationa Convention of AASA, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 15, 1965).

3. Over a longer term basis, those who initiated proposals were the top figures in the educational power structure.

Vidich and Bensman's[25] analysis of the political aspects of small town life stresses tension between the local communities and the state requirements which regulate so much of their everyday life. They also point out how a school administrator can survive a potentially hostile community with adroit use of political skill.

Frieda Gehlen[26] synthesized the research on the political aspects of rural schools. She found that rural schools are characterized by a limited curriculum and conservative tax picture, a conservative faculty, and a staff which is homogeneous in background and values. Controversial areas might be changes which demand more money, value-laden curriculum, or consolidation. Gehlen feels that a monolithic power structure in rural areas decides economic issues independent of public debate, but lets individuals outside the monolithic power structure decide non-economic issues.

Of the many dissertations done using community power structure in the conceptual framework, three types seem to emerge. The first type simply describes the type of power structure found in their particular community. The second type uses power structure as the independent variable. A third type attempts to resolve the Hunter vs. Dahl methodological issue.

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[25] Arthur J. Vidich, and Joseph Bensman, SMALL TOWN IN MASS SOCIETY (Revised Edition; Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1968).

[26] Frieda Gehlen, "The Political Aspects of Small Town and Rural Schools," ERIC - ED 030 502, 1969.

Gettell[27] discovered power structure in the community that she studied and confirmed the hypotheses that (1) major policy decisions are made in informal settings but legitimized in formal settings, but that (2) wealth was not a prime factor in determining the makeup of the power structure. Blome[28] used the positional approach, the reputational approach, and the analysis of community bond issues in two case studies, one rural and the other urban. Blome's conclusions found similarities on demographic makeups in the communities but bond success was related to the degree of influential participation.

Community power structures were found intertwined with education at the district level in a variety of other areas. Kerr[29] found a community power structure in studying a Virginia city, Kesl[30] in South

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[27] Gerhard Frederick Gettell, "A Study of Power in North Central Community," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1956).

[28] Arvis Chris Blome, "A Study in the Identification of Community Power Structure and Influence on Public School Issues," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Iowa, 1963).

[29] Norman J. Kerr, "A Community Educational Power Structure," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, George Washington University, 1969).

[30] Gary L. Kesl, "Perceptions of the Community Power Structure of Selected Communities in South Florida," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation at University of Miami, 1972).

Florida, Timler[31] in Fort Wayne, Hill[32] in Massachusetts, McDaniel[33] in a rapidly growing suburb in Southern California, Rossetti[34] in three districts near Syracuse, New York, and Lapinsky[35] in one district near Syracuse. Schneider[36] did not find a power structure influencing educational policy making in either of the two districts he analyzed in Ohio.

A second group of power structure dissertations used power structure as the independent variable influencing some other variable or variables. Hobbs[37] found a significant (.01) relationship between the administrator's ability to perceive the power structure and a high LBDQ initiator of structure and total score. Miller[38] described the effects power structures might have on decision making in boards of education in twenty-two districts in Missouri. Garrelink[39] studied three similar communities in Michigan which had used citizens committees in school construction programs. He found that members of citizens' committees were almost always of high socioeconomic status; those who advocated the use of citizens' committees were almost always influentials in the communities, and membership on citizens' committees resulted in movement upward in the power structure. Braun's[40] findings seem to support the Pellegrin research cited above that professional educators exert the most influence concerning educational issues.

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[31] Stephen P. Timler, "A Study of Selected Community Leaders Influencing Educational Decisions in the Fort Wayne Community Schools," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Ball State University, 1973).

[32] William B. Hill, "Community Power Structure and the Operation of A Selected School System," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1972).

[33] Ross Pat McDaniel, "Community Influentials, Power Structure and Special Interest Groups and Their Influence on Individual Trustees in a Selected School District: A Case Study," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1973).

[34] Andrew D. Rossetti, "An Analysis and Comparison of Decision Making at the Community Level in a School District," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Syracuse University, 1972).

[35] Anthony A. Lapinsky, "An Analysis of the Power Structure and the Decision Making Process at the Community School Level Within a School District," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Syracuse University, 1973).

[36] Herbert Schneider, "A Comparative Study of Political Power and Educational Decision-Making in Two Small City School Districts," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1967).

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[37] Philip Jesse Hobbs, "Perceptions of the Community Power Structure By the Public School Administration As Related to Its Effectiveness," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Purdue University, 1969).

[38] Jack Austin Miller, "The Effects of the Power Structure Upon the Decision Making Process of Boards of Education in Selected Missouri School Districts," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Missouri, 1970).

[39] Roger H. Garrelink, "A Study of Citizen Committees: The Relationship of the Positions in the Community Power Structure of the Citizens Serving as Members of Citizens' Committees and the Citizens Allocating the Use of Citizen Committees," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1970).

[40] Harry Jean Braun, III, "The Evaluation of Power As It Is Related to the Involvement of Lay Leadership in School-Community Relations," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1971).

Using power structure as the independent variable and participation as the dependent variable, Masse[41] studied the relationship between influentials and schools in wealthy and poor school districts. Masse used the reputational approach to determine ten influentials in each of his ten units of analysis (five wealthy, five poor) and found significant (.01) differences in seven of ten forms of educational participation. Harris[42] studied citizen participation in two politically different school districts. He used a stratified random sample of two hundred voters in each community and also used decision analysis. Harris found that significant differences in participation emerged in the two politically different districts when he used the two types of methodologies.

The third group of community power structure dissertation studies stresses the resolution of methodological issues. Speiss[43] surveyed the power and influence literature and offered the following recommendations: 1. avoid a priori reputations, and once a reputation list is obtained, use sociograms; 2. combine the reputation, sociometric, and issue analysis approaches; 3. determine educational decision-makers by informal reputations and issue analysis. Shields[44] compared the Dahl/issue approach, the Hunter/reputational approach, and a hypothetical issue/power approach in four different communities, two with populations of 40,000 plus and two less than 2500. The hypothetical issue approach asks respondents if an issue were to arise, who might have influence? Shields found that the hypothesized power approach has potential as a methodology but was not significantly better than the other methods.

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[41] Bernard Masse, "A Comparison of the Relationship of Influentials to Schools in High and Low Financial Support Communities," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1964).

[42] Marion M. Harris, "The Extent, Pattern, and Perceived Effectiveness of Citizen Participation In Decision-Making Under Two Different Types of Power Structures," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Florida, 1967).

A final methodological approach to community power study stresses the amount of social activity which the actors have in their respective communities. Miskel[45], et al., posited two different sets of theories in their joint dissertation research, the exchange versus power theories.

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[43] John A. Spiess, "Community Power Structure and Influence: Relationships to Educational Administration," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Iowa, 1967).

[44] William A. Shields, "Power Structures of Four Idaho Communities: A Test of An Alternative Methodology," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1972).

[45] Cecil Miskel, et al., "An Investigation of the Politics of Education Using Two Theories of Social Organization as a Conceptual Guide," EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION QUARTERLY, VII, 3 (Autumn, 1971), pp. 64-78.

The exchange theories, represented by Blau and Scott, maintain that social relations created both common standards and values. Because of the frequency and duration of contacts, social relations created a direction of sentiment. The power theories stress an unequal distribution of power due to dominants' control over resources, information, reputation, and other actors' apathy. With school board members as the unit of analysis, and school bond results as the dependent variable, Miskel and his colleagues reported that boards of education with more frequent social relations had more significant success in the bond elections. Seifert[46] used a similar social interaction framework in studying four communities in New York State. At the .01 level of significance, he found that those communities which had the higher frequency of contact had greater material support. He also found that the more school administrators reacted to influentials, the more demands were placed on school organizations.

Community Typology

Although researchers did not come to this conclusion hastily, some community power students realized that communities could vary by political type rather than be determined as one predominant structure over another. Rossi[47] offered four types of community power structures:

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[46] Kenneth R. Seifert, "Interaction of Political Sub Systems: School Administrators and Community Influences," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1967).

[47] Peter H. Rossi, "Power and Community Structure," MIDWEST JOURNAL OF POLITICAL SCIENCE, IV (November 1960), pp. 390-401.

pyramidal, caucus rule, polylith, and amorphous. The pyramidal power structure has lines of power ending up in the hands of a centralized few, and Rossi cited as examples Lynd's Middletown and Hunter's Regional City. Caucus power structure might by typical of a small town or dormant suburb where a few rule by consensus, as in Springdale, for example. Rossi's polylith is a pluralist type of power structure with various centers of decisional activity. Rossi's amorphous stage is a residual category with no discernible enduring pattern of power.

Carver and Crowe[48] synthesized research in their article and suggested an inter-disciplinary framework in studying community power which integrates both the reputational and event analysis approach. They offered a "power configuration continuum" depicted in Figure 1-1 (terms in parentheses are Carver and Crowe's):

monolithic	factional	coalitional	amorphous
	(caucus)	(pyramidal)	

The McCarty-Ramsey framework builds upon the community typologies above, but integrates the superintendent and the board of education into the typology. In writing THE SCHOOL MANAGERS[49], McCarty and Ramsey wanted to resolve the power structure controversy which they did by positing and verifying a community typology in fifty-one communities in the Midwest and Northeast.

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[48] Fred D. Carver and Donald O. Crowe, "An Inter-Disciplinary Framework for the Study of Community Power," EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION QUARTERLY, 5 (Winter, 1969), 1, pp. 50-65.

[49] McCarty and Ramsey, p. XVIII.

The normal research process was for the researchers to direct a team of interviewers into a community. The points of research entry and interviewing rested mainly with the superintendents and school boards. Field reports were written from an interview schedule, and the research team was asked either to make a consensual decision or ballot individually on the type of power structure in a community.

Their major findings indicated that communities, school boards and superintendents differ in type according to a host of possible variables. McCarty and Ramsey were able to reduce the variance to a three by four typology (Figure 1-2) and establish statistical reliability in the typology using the phi coefficient.

McCarty and Ramsey were careful to acknowledge that of the fifty-one communities studied, there were some situations in which the superintendent, school board, and community did not correlate exactly to the typology. However, their framework seems to integrate the community power and educational decision-making research into a comprehensive community typology. Sproule[50] further validated the McCarty-Ramsey typology in a dissertation at Cornell University using twenty-three boards of education and one hundred and fort-three board members throughout New York State.

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[50] Joseph R. Sproule, "Decision-Making Processes of Boards of Education," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1966).

FIGURE 1-2.

McCARTY/RAMSEY MODEL.

	Community	Board	Superintendent
1.	dominated	dominated	functionary—policy decisions will be controlled by an elite.
2.	factional	factional	political strategist—policy decisions will be initiated and carried out by the majority.
3.	pluralistic	status congruent	professional advisor—policy decisions will be made by coalition formation.
4.	inert	sanctioning	decision-maker—policy decisions will fall under the superintendents aegis.

(Source: Donald J, McCarty and Charles E, Ramsey, THE SCHOOL MANAGERS (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Pub. Co., 1971).)

Local Politics of Education: at the Neighborhood Level

A limited amount of research has used both a political perspective and focused on the neighborhood school as the unit of analysis. Much of the literature to be discussed in this section comes from the community advisory/governance controversies in the late 1960's.

Summerfield's work[51] is probably the most important field research at the neighborhood school level to include the school-community and the school into a political framework. Summerfield's THE NEIGHBORHOOD-BASED POLITICS OF EDUCATION is a study which links the neighborhood elementary school, its principal, and the attendance area into a political framework. Summerfield studied four socio-economically different elementary school attendance areas in the same city. He does not clearly explain the rationale for the research site selections except to suggest that reading scores and aid to dependent children were factors. Summerfield's organizing rationale is principal behavior in the four socio-economically different areas. Essentially, he looked at parental pressure and resultant resource allocation from the central office. Summerfield asked, does the principal behave differently because of parental influence in the attendance area, and is parental pressure and influence dependent on socio-economic status? His answer to both questions is a qualified "yes", and he uses interest group theory of political behavior to explain his major findings.

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[51] Harry Summerfield, THE NEIGHBORHOOD-BASED POLITICS OF EDUCATION (Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Co., 1971).

The implications of Summerfield's work to this study are important. He demonstrated that the neighborhood elementary school could be used as a unit of analysis with a political framework and that school attendance areas vary in their political style.

Only a few other researchers have used a political framework when studying the neighborhood elementary school. Steinert[52] studied controversial issues in three elementary school areas and identified the community power structure in each, but did not use any sort of typology to integrate his findings. Holman[53] used the Katz and Lazarsfield PERSONAL INFLUENCE terminology to analyze community school leaders. In his case study of one elementary school, he used three different techniques to determine school leaders who were personal influence leaders, sociometric, key informant, and self-designating. Holman found that personal influence leaders had similar socio-economic status, and that professional persons at the neighborhood level are normally the personal influence leaders.

Joseph Weeres[54] attempted to isolate critical variables at the

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[52] Raymond Steinert, "Communmity Power Structure in Relation to Implementation of Controversial Issue Programs in Nebraska Elementary Schools," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1971).

[53] Paul C. Holman, "Community School Leaders Functioning as Personal Influence Leaders," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1965).

[54] Joseph Weeres, "School politics in Thirty-three of the Local Community Areas Within the City of Chicago," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Education, University of Chicago, 1971).

Neighborhood school level by using a political framework in Chicago. Weere's theoretical framework rests in the differences between the Marxiam social stratification theories and the Weberian pluralist tradition. His primary research technique was to use telephone interviewing to determine patterns of school-community participation and issue resolution. He also related neighborhood socio-economic status, the Chicago Daley political machine, participation, and issue resolution. Weeres' findings revealed that local community groups are normally conservative in nature, raise issues rather than be created by issues, and are generally ineffective in promoting educational policy. This ineffectiveness occurs because the community groups lack the data necessary for confrontation with the educational establishment. He found no correlation between success in having educational issues resolved and its relationship with the Daley political machine.

Firestone's research[55] on community organizations and school reform uses and builds on the Weeres research reported above. Firestone conducted a participant observation study on a community organization for six months. He studied a district-wide pressure group which got the DISTAR reading program implemented in its fourteen elementary schools. Firestone found that the pressure group's leadership was essentially a small group of dedicated individuals. The pressure group itself had a diffuse membership. The president of the pressure group had access to night watchman school jobs as a form of political patronage and worked with the school administration in a form of mutual co-optation.

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[55] William Firestone, "Community Organization and School Reform: A Case Study," SCHOOL REVIEW 81 (November, 1972), pp. 108-120.

Safer[56] also used a political perspective in studying suburban elementary schools. He used Minar's[57] forty-eight school boards for his sample and attempted through a mail-out questionnaire to ascertain influence on school policy. He found little influence on policy, but did report that the medium-low socio-economic schools had PTA's which exerted a greater role in the functioning of schools than did those elementary schools with medium high socio-economic status.

Community Control/Governance/Urban School Reform

While the Weeres and Firestone research cited above deal indirectly with the issue of community control, a great deal of literature has appeared in the last ten years which involves the questions of community control, governance, and urban school reform. A complete review of that literature would not be relevant to this research. Others, like Don Davies[58], Henry Levin[59], Mario Fantini[60], Marilyn Gittell[61], and Jay Scribner[62] have addressed themselves to the issues and nuances of citizen participation and community control. The purposes of this section are only to survey the research implications of the community control/governance literature as it might apply to the proposed research.

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[56] Louis Safer, Jr., "Suburban Elementary School Parent-Teacher Associations: Their Role and Influence Upon Educational Decision-Making," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1972).

[57] David W. Minar, "The Community Basis of Conflict in School System Politics," AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW 31 (1966), pp. 823-835.

Most community control analyses begin with the Kennedy/Johnson legislative program and the 1964 Economic Opportunity Act Title III requirement that those affected by monetary expenditure, particularly the poor, must participate in determining its expenditure. Much of the controversy in the next ten years, from 1965 to 1975, resulted from the looseness of the term participation.

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[58] Don Davies, CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY (New Haven, Connecticut: Institute for Responsive Education, 1973).

[59] Henry Levin, ed., COMMUNITY CONTROL OF SCHOOLS (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1970).

[60] Mario Fantini, Marilyn Gittell, and Richard Magat, COMMUNITY CONTROL AND THE URBAN SCHOOL (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1970).

[61] Marilyn Gittell, PARTICIPANTS AND PARTICIPATION (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1967).

[62] Jay D. Scribner, "The Politics of Educational Reform: Analysis of Political Demand," URBAN EDUCATION 4 (January, 1970), pp. 348-374.

In attempting to analyze the relationship between administrative decentralization and community participation, Ornstein[63] surveyed all U.S. school systems with fifty thousand students or more. His data indicates that of sixty-five systems, thirty-nine had decentralized, and eight others were considering it. He found that larger school systems tended to have decentralized more than smaller ones. He drew a sharp distinction, however, between administrative decentralization and community control. Ornstein found that only New York and Detroit had followed decentralization up with community control which included control over budgets. Ornstein felt that a New York perspective had permeated the community control literature.

Havighurst[64] also described the dichotomy between administrative decentralization and community control, but was more sociological in description of the antecedents to community control. Havighurst traces the origins of community control in the rise of ethnicity, particularly black power in the late 1960's and the desire for local control rather than bureaucratic dominance.

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[63] Allan C. Ornstein, "Administrative/Community Organization of Metropolitan Schools," PHI DELTA KAPPAN LIV, 10 (June, 1973), pp. 668-674.

[64] Robert J. Havighurst, "Local Community Participation In Educational Policy-Making and School Administration," An address to the Conference on Community Participation in Education, Teacher Corps Association Conference, University of Wisconsin-Madison, October, 1974 (Mimeographed).

Zelman's research[65] in Massachusetts was organized around a theoretical rationale which employed Oscar Lewis' culture of poverty theory that the poor are emasculated from the institutions that serve them and better client serves will result from citizen participation in decision-making. Zelman's findings reveal that the participation hypothesis should be questioned and researched more carefully. Her case studies reveal that school committee advisory groups did not have significant power and citizen participation was seen as threatening.

Seldin's[66] dissertation research also found that participation did not necessarily result in power. Her case studies on two community school councils revealed that the community school councils received little if any access to resources, power, and curriculum control. Harris[67], however, found that the policy making parents would more likely be those who strongly disapproved of existing education decision making—at least in lower socio-economic neighborhoods.

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[65] Susan Zellman, "An Evaluation of Citizen Participation in an Urban School," Paper presented at AERA Annual Conference, Chicago, Illinois, April 18, 1974 (Mimeographed).

[66] Florence Seldin, "A Study of An Attempt to Increase Community Involvement in an Urban School System," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Rochester, 1973).

[67] George D. Harris, Jr., "A Study of Citizen Participation In the Educational Decision-Making Process As Perceived By Parents From a Lower Socioeconomic Neighborhood," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

Several dissertations have been written which have described the workings of school advisory councils, particularly the councils in Los Angeles[68]. Linick [69], however, used a political perspective in studying a school advisory council as a political system. His eclectic methodology included participant observation, an attitudes survey, council minutes, and interaction analysis. Linick wanted to determine if a school advisory council could reduce conflict by accommodating demands and promoting change. His most important finding was that the principal was the most important variable in the relationship between the school advisory council and the school.

The writings on community control/governance are multitudinous and far-flung. For this study, they point out that a political perspective is a useful one in studying neighborhood politics and the major theoretical work on citizen participation and community control still needs to be done. However, community typologies, issue analysis, and policy analysis are viable conceptual tools in studying educational change and the home-school-community environment. Schools and conflict resolution also share a political framework at the neighborhood level.

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[68] See Joseph P. Linscomb, "The Structure and Organization of Successful Community Advisory Councils in An Inner-City Area of the Los Angeles City Unified School District," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Brigham Young University, 1971); and Mary Francis McKenna, "A Model to Determine Effectiveness of School Community Advisory Councils of Los Angeles Univied School District," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1973); also Willard G. Pumphrey, "The Structure and Organization of Successful Community Advisory Councils in An Emerging Middle-Class Area in the Los Angeles City School District," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Brigham Young University, 1971).

[69] Herbert Linick, "A School Advisory Council As A Mechanism For Change and Reducing Conflict," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, U.C.L.A., 1971).

Schools and Conflict Resolution

The literature which deals with schools and conflict resolution is included under the umbrella of the politics of education because it falls within the general political perspective of who gets what, where, when, and how.

Weiler[70] reviewed sixteen case studies which illustrate modes of conflict resolution with the conclusion that actual or potential conflict may be differentiated according to the administrator's struggle for racial balance. Levin and Stein[71] have reported a case study which discusses the attempts the authors made to hold forums in school-community relations during the 1968 New York Teachers Strike. The forums resulted in channelling existing conflict towards long-term benefits of the community.

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[70] David Weiler, et al., SCHOOL COMMUNITY RELATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGE. ED 054 536, 1972.

[71] Gilbert Levin, David D. Stein, "System Intervention in a School-Community Conflict," THE JOURNAL OF APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE 6 (1970), 3, pp. 337-363.

Richard Moser's research[72] in a Puerto Rican school-community approached issue identification and conflict resolution using a political framework. Moser's findings were part methodological. He used field study methods to identify issues and then Q-sort methodology to pinpoint and verify school-community issues in a Puerto Rican Community. Moser concluded that members of the Puerto Rican community were not able to get their issues resolved within their school-community.

Other research in the field of conflict resolution has tended to be descriptive of what is or should be done. Harris[73] surveyed parental attitudes in two elementary school attendance areas in Montgomery County, Maryland, and administered the LBDQ to ten teachers in each school. Harris found that high consideration by teachers on the LBDQ corresponded to high parental concern of the principal. Rholl[74] in a school board-superintendent study used voting records in school board elections in an attempt to relate district conflict to decision-making.

One might conclude that studies done in the politics of education have touched tangentially on the proposed study. Studies were discussed which use the neighborhood school as the unit of analysis in a political framework. Community typology has been proven to be a viable research framework. Analyses of other work in the politics of education indicates that no other work approximates the conceptual framework of the proposed study. The uniqueness of the proposed study rests in the analysis of the acceptance of change in politically different school-attendance areas.

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[72] Richard F. Moser, "The Politics of School/Community Relations: A Puerto Rican Community," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1973).

[73] Johnie E. Harris, "An Investigation of Teachers' Percpetions of the Principal's Leadership Role and Parental Attitudes in Respect to School-Community Conflict," (unpublished Ed.D. thesis, George Washington University, 1973).

[74] Gordon O. Rholl, "The Relation of Community-School District Conflict to Processes of Decision-Making," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of North Dakota, 1968).

Community Acceptance of Innovation

The literature reviewed above centered around the background to a political perspective at the neighborhood level and community typology as a research framework. This section of the literature review will analyze community acceptance of change as well as review the literature about decision-making in curriculum and innovation in the school district. Finally, an analysis of the path of educational change in the community will lead to a discussion of the zone of tolerance concept, its background and efficacy.

Community Acceptance of Innovation: Research Outside of Education

Researchers who have attempted to analyze community acceptance of change or innovation have largely relied on sociological constructs to interpret their findings. Flinn[75], for example, analyzed the innovativeness of truck growers with the conclusion that further research needed to be done on whether community values can have an influence on individuals' performance. Crain and Rosenthal[76] concluded that the well educated city tended to immobilize its government by high levels of citizen participation. Bolan[77] oriented his arguments towards community planners in stressing the realization that planning may not be linear and rational especially in urban settings.

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[75] William L. Flinn, "Influence of Community Values On Innovativeness," AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY 75 (May, 1970), 8, pp. 983-990.

Aiken and Alford[78] review five theories of community innovation: 1. the political culture theory; 2. the centralization of formal political structure; 3. concentration or diffusion of community power; 4. community differentiation; and 5. community integration. With these five theories as a backdrop, Aiken and Alford studied the frequency which cities asked for urban renewal funds in 582 cities with populations above twenty-five thousand. None of the five theories proved to be significantly satsifactory. Aiken and Alford end their research by suggesting that inter-organizational linkages are perhaps the critical factor in the adoption process. Inter-organizational linkages can establish communication patterns and familiarize key actors with each other.

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[76] Robert Crain and Donald Rosenthal, "Community Status as a Dimension of Local Decision Making," AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW 32 (1970), pp. 970-984.

[77] Richard S. Bolan, "Community Decision Behavior: The Culture of Planning," AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF PLANNERS JOURNAL 35 (September, 1969), pp. 301-310.

[78] Michael Aiken and Robert Alford, "Community Structure and Innovation: The Case of Urban Renewal," AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW 35 (1970), pp. 650-665.

Smith[79] also attempted to understand community acceptance of innovation using structural arguments in analyzing acceptance of school referenda for new buildings or programs, business-oriented community decisions, and public oriented programs. Smith's three structural conditions, namely levels of differentiation, social integration, and distribution of power, had no bearing on the success of school referenda but did with community decisions.

Much of the work in organizational theory which deals with innovation has paid little attention to the political environment around the organization. Part of the problem, as Zaltman[80] explains, is that researchers haven't agreed on a definition of the environment. Research conducted by Thompson[81] and Larence and Lorsch[82] stand out as attempts to understand the effects of the environment on organizations. One might point out the relative newness of the research and measurement applications of the organization-environment literature by realizing that Price's important HANDBOOK OF ORGANIZATIONAL MEASUREMENT[83] does not even have one chapter which attempts to address the methodological question involved in organization - environment research. Argyris[84], and Child[85] have recently criticized the organizations - environment literature as lacking recognition of the rational human variable in decision-making. Within the organizational theory literature, Chandler[86], Cyert and March[87], and French social scientists such as Touraine, Crozier and Karipik have used the rational political-actor model in their research. Zald's[88] political economy model is an important one in analyzing the economic determinants of organizational adaptation. Allison's[89] political-actor model is also useful in looking at individuals as power actors.

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[79] Richard A. Smith, "Community Structure and Innovation: A Study of the Effects of Social Structure on Program Adoption and Implementation," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1973).

[80] Gerald Zaltman, Robert Duncan, and Jonny Holbeck, INNOVATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973).

[81] James Thompson, ORGANIZATION IN ACTION (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

[82] Paul R. Lawrence and Jay W. Lorsch, ORGANIZATION AND ENVIRONMENT (Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1969).

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[83] James L. Price, HANDBOOK OF ORGANIZATION MEASUREMENT (Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1972).

[84] Chris Argyris, "Some Limits of Rational Man Organizational Theory," PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION REVIEW 33 (1973), pp. 253-267.

[85] John Child, "Organizational Structure, Environment and Performance: The Role of Strategic Choice, SOCIOLOGY 6 (1972), pp. 1-23.

[86] Alfred G. Chandler, STRATEGY AND STRUCTURE (Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1962).

[87] Richard M Cyert and James G. March, A BEHAVIORAL THEORY OF THE FIRM (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963).

[88] Mayer N. Zald, ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970).

[89] Graham Allison, "Conceptual Models and the Cuban Missile Crisis," AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE REVIEW LXIII (September, 1969), 3, pp. 689-718.

This review of the community acceptance of change outside of education and related organizational theory literature is more important for the gaps left in the literature than what it has to offer directly to the study. Social stratification and community structure do not seem to offer answers to the questions of how and why communities accept innovations. The organizational theory literature has little to offer from its organizations - environment research. Rather, the work done in the political actor model has its most important bearings on this study.

Finally, the proposed research attempted to place a model of policy process--initiation, information, accommodation, legitimation--over the home-school-community environment in its acceptance of the Individually Guided Education program of instruction. As has been mentioned before, most organizational theorists treat the acceptance of change as an intra-organizational problem rather than one which has ramifications in the larger environment. Zaltman[90] has summarized what he calls the "organizational model of acceptance of innovations," and his models are included as Figure 1-3. Any one of them might have been useful as a model of policy acceptance. Policy process seemed to

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[90] Zaltman, p. 62.

FIGURE 1-3

ZALTMAN'S SUMMARY OF THE ACCEPTANCE OF CHANGE

Milo (1971)	Shepard (1967, p. 470)	Hage and Aiken (1970, p. 113)
1. Conceptualization	1. Idea generation	1. Evaluation
2. Tentative Adoption	2. Adoption	2. Initiation
3. Resource Getting	3. Implementation	3. Implementation
4. Implementation		4. Routinization
5. Institutionalization		

Wilson (1966)	Zaltman, Duncan and Holbek
1. Conception of the Change	I. Initiation stage
2. Proposing of change	1. Knowledge-awareness substage
3. Adoption and Implementation	
	2. Formation of attitudes toward the innovation substage
	3. Decision substage
	II. Implementation stage
	1. Initial implementation substage
	2. Continued-sustained implementation substage

(Source: Gerald Zaltman, Robert Duncan, and Jonny Holbek, INNOVATIONS and ORGANIZATIONS (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1973), p. 62.)

have more of a political orientation with emphasis on the larger environment rather than an intra-organizational treatment of the acceptance of the innovation.

Innovations in Education

Two recent volumes have documented the fallacy of assuming that change occurs in school systems because it has been declared that a change has taken place. Sarason's[91] study involved the modern math concepts and elementary school teaching. Sarason's research resulted in a modal process of change theory which says that schools go through change and get involved on the means to the end rather than the end itself. The change brings about the unintended consequences of no real change. Gross[92] et al, conducted an in-depth case study of change in an elementary school and defined change as different role behavior by the teacher. Using a participant observer checklist which measured the amount of time teachers spent in role behavior, they found no significant difference in the amount of role behavior before and after the innovation had been implemented.

In the proposed research, the policy process discussed above[93] begins with the initiation of the idea of Individually Guided Education.

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[91] Seymour B. Sarason, THE CULTURE OF THE SCHOOL AND THE PROBLEM OF CHANGE (Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971).

[92] Neal Gross, Joseph B. Giacquinta, and Marilyn Bernstein, IMPLEMENTING ORGANIZATIONAL INNOVATIONS (New York: Basic Books, 1971).

[93] See pp. 33-35.

The question of initiation is quite similar to research conducted on the policy making process in education.

Most of the research on policy making in educational systems is oriented to school board-superintendent interaction. That research indicates that the superintendent plays the greatest role in curriculum related decisions.[94] Sullivan found that policies and general decisions may become entangled.[95] Sheely determined that teachers may be highly involved in making policy decisions.[96]

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[94] See Donald P. Shock, "Patterns in the Decision-Making Process of a School Board," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1969); and Alton E. Harris. "School Board Expectations for the Superintendent's Role in Decision-Making," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1970); see also W. W. Charters, et al., THE PROCESS OF PLANNED CHANGE IN THE SCHOOL'S INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, CASEA Monograph, No. 25); and Jean Lucile Niedermeyer Scott, "Boards and Superintendents' Perceptions of the Superintendent As An Agent for Innovative Change," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1970); also Robert E. Skippen, Jr., "A Comparison of the Superintendent's Influence on School Board Policy as Perceived by Superintendents of Schools and the School Chairmen," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1964).

[95] Louis A. Sullivan, "Policy-Making and Implementation by Boards of Education," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Nebraska Teacher College, 1965).

[96] Richard Lee Sheely, "An Analysis of Staff Participation in Policy Foundation," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1970).

Mort[97], analyzing the research on innovations and communities conducted out of the Metropolitan School Study Council, Teachers College, Columbia University, was able to conclude that communities will vary in their acceptance of innovations but that communities which seem to be innovation oriented in areas other than education will also be innovative minded in education.

Like the organizational studies discussed above, the Sarason research and Gross research cited above, and the CASEA monographs over the last ten years[98], the implementation of innovative programs has generally been considered to be an in-school, in-organization, or in-district rather than a home-school-community environment problem. Yet, as Shane[99] points out, sources of resistance to innovation will be found primarily in the community environment outside the school as well as sources internal to the school. Shane specifically cites lack of public support and commitment as well as fear of tax increases as being the biggest problems in the community environment.

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[97] Paul Mort, "Studies in Education Innovation from the Institute of Administrative Research: An Overview," in INNOVATIONS IN EDUCATION; ed. by Matthew A. Miles (N.Y.: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1964), pp. 317-328.

[98] See Richard O. Carlson, et al., CHANGE PROCESSES IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, CASEA, 1965); also Richard O. Carlson, ADOPTION OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, CASEA, 1965), and W. W. Charters, Jr., et al., THE PROCESS OF PLANNED CHANGE IN THE SCHOOL'S INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION (Eugene, Oregon; University of Oregon, CASEA Monograph No. 25, 1973).

[99] Harold G. Shane, "The Drop-Out Problem in Educational Innovation," EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP (March, 1973), pp. 2-3.

There are some notable exceptions to the general lack of research done on community acceptance of innovations in education. The Agger and Goldstein research first reported in the ERIC system[100] and later expanded into WHO WILL RULE THE SCHOOLS: A CULTURAL CLASS CRISIS[101] which follows the implementation of innovative practices in Springfield and Eugene, Oregon, for four years using a panel type of survey instrumentation. They reported that a budget defeat in Eugene later in the implementation of the innovation revealed that lower class voters were upset at programs oriented towards "upper, college bound kids." However, their major findings indicated that innovations enhanced positive feelings and turned others around in their attitudes toward school programs.

THE JACKSON COUNTY STORY and JACKSON COUNTY REVISITED[102] are attempts to understand the politics of education and the community on a county wide basis. While the focus is primarily on the superintendent of schools and his perception by the community, they do have useful insights into the process of innovation in the community, particularly when a superintendent is viewed as an alien expert and loses his political mandate through school board turnover.

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[100] Robert E. Agger and Marshall N. Goldstein, "Education Innovations In the Community," ERIC ED 010 164, 1967.

[101] Robert E. Agger and Marshall N. Goldstein, WHO WILL RULE THE SCHOOLS: A CULTURAL CLASS CRISIS (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Pub. Co., 1971).

[102] Keith Goldhammer and Frank Farner, THE JACKSON COUNTY STORY (University of Oregon: Center for Advanced Study, Educational Administration, 1964), and Keith Goldhammer and Roland Pellegrin, JACKSON COUNTY REVISITED (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, CASEA, 1968).

Goldhammer reflected on his Jackson County research and other reading in an address given in 1965 on community acceptance of change.[103] He too lamented that most change studies are intra-organizational. However, Goldhammer felt that the key factors in the public's acceptance of the innovation would be the consequences for their children, for the perpetuation of values that they thought significant, or for the costs which might be involved. Goldhammer then reviewed the literature on change outside the field of education with these five most important factors:

1. The public's image of the advocate of change.
2. Public's image of the organization and the ends which it serves.
3. Public's view of the proposed changes.
4. The congruence of the proposed change with generally accepted values and recognized social needs.
5. Situational factors which facilitate or impede the acceptance of change.

Other research on community acceptance and involvement in the change process has been conducted at the rural, suburban, and urban levels. Hughes and Spence[104] synthesized research on rural groups towards education with one important conclusion that rural areas may not be as monolithic as previously conceived. Steinberg[105] found that institutional arrangements in her suburban school case study minimized any capacity for meaningful participation in change efforts. Littky[106] reviewing his experience in Ocean-Hill Brownsville suggested that in urban communities there is need to find power and discover the latent desires of the people as well as discovering the hidden variables in working within the system. Manger[107] attempted to see if a public relations program and power structure analysis could be used simultaneously in promoting educational programs. He found that both approaches could be used but that an educational program could be advanced faster with a public relations program.

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[103] Keith Goldhammer, "Issues and Strategies in the Public Acceptance of Educational Change," ERIC ED 010 224, 1965.

[104] Larry W. Hughes and Dulphus L. Spence, "Attitudes and Orientations of Rural Groups and Efforts in Educational Decision- Making and Innovation in Rural School Districts: A Synthesis of Research," ERIC ED 054 892, 1972.

Cunningham[108] studied the development of educational policy in one community over twelve months and determined five stages in the policy-making process: (1) initiation, (2) definition and statement of the policy problem, (3) bargaining and alternatives, (4) selection of the policy alternatives, and (5) policy implementation and evaluation. While Cunningham's focus is on the community, superintendent, and school board, it is also an attempt to place a policy-making framework over the development of educational policy.

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[105] Lois S. Steinberg, "Some Structural Determinants of Citizen Participation in Educational Policy-Making in Suburbia: A Case Study," Paper presented at AERA Convention, 1971 (Mimeographed).

[106] Dennis Sheldon Littky, "Identification and Analysis of Variables and Processes Affecting Educational Change in Urban Schools and Communities: A Study in the Ocean-Hill Brownsville Demonstration School District," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1970).

[107] Karl F. Manger, "The Use of Public Relations and Human Power Structure to Promote the Educational Program Within a Community," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1965).

[108] Lavern L. Cunningham, "A Community Develops Educational Policy: A Case Study," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1958).

Lacy[109] studied the ways in which IGE was initiated in ten different school systems in Indiana. He found that before the initiation of the idea to a school board meeting, the superintendent got prior involvment. The actual initiation of the concept into the system came from central office personnel six out of seven cases reported.

Zone of Tolerance Concept

Besides the policy making framework, another conceptual tool used to understand how the home-school-community environment accepted the IGE program was the zone of tolerance concept. Zone of tolerance is defined as "the latitude or area of maneuverability granted or yielded to the leadership of the schools by the local community."[110]

At least four different writers in the 1950's and 1960's used terms very similar to those in the zone of tolerance concept. In 1953,

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[109] Dennis G. Lacy, "Methods of Introducing Individually Guided Education (IGE) Programs in Selected School Systems in Indiana," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1972).

[110] McGivney and Moynihan, p. 221.

Charters[111] suggested a "margin of tolerance" in which citizens delegate authority to school personnel to educate youth within precise boundaries. Gouldner and Merton[112] first developed the concept of tension between the local-cosmopolitan orientation in communities through research funded by a national magazine. Etzioni also uses the concept of a zone of indifference in organizational theory.[113]

Corwin synthesized much of the research done in the 1940's, 1950's and 1960's in A SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION.[114] After he reviewed the Hunter elitist vs. Dahl pluralist views of community control, he directed his attention to general community orientations, which he viewed on a continuum from a local orientation to a cosmopolitan orientation.[115] The local orientation in communities would be characterized by predominant concern for local affairs, home owned, and locally marketed industries, and the school as the bastion of local community values. The cosmopolitan orientation would find schools more worldly, more innovative and change oriented. Industries would be absentee owned with a national or international market.

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[111] W. W. Charters, Jr., "Social Class Analysis and the Control of Public Education," HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW 23 (Fall, 1953).

[112] Robert K. Merton, SOCIAL THEORY AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE (New York: Free Press, 1968).

[113] Amitai Etzioni, COMPLEX ORGANIZATIONS (New York: The Free Press, 1961), p. 91. Also see Chester Barnard, FUNCTION OF THE EXECUTIVE (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938), p. 167.

[114] Ronald G. Corwin, A SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION (New York: Meredith Publishing Co., 1965).

[115] Corwin, A SOCIOLOGY OF EDUCATION, pp. 366-390.

Moynihan and McGivney took Corwin's local-cosmopolitan orientation, researched it through doctoral case studies of educational change and enlarged it into a "zone of tolerance" concept which exists between the community value structure and the goals of the school (Figure 1-4).

The zone of tolerance concept is useful as an inferential tool in attempting to understand how the community accepted the innovation. The political variance dictated by the McCarty/Ramsey community typology suggested that each home-school-community environment would vary in its acceptance pattern. Other dissertations have used the local-cosmopolitan continua in understanding parental participation. Sutthoff[116] found that locals and cosmopolitans differed in form and degree of participation in school affairs with the locals exhibiting more loyalty to the organization and more involvement while the cosmopolitans would be better read and more vocal about school. Peterson[117] in a follow-up study to Sutthoff indicated that cosmopolitanism-localism was a viable concept, and cosmopolitanism was a good predictor of the adoption of educational innovations.

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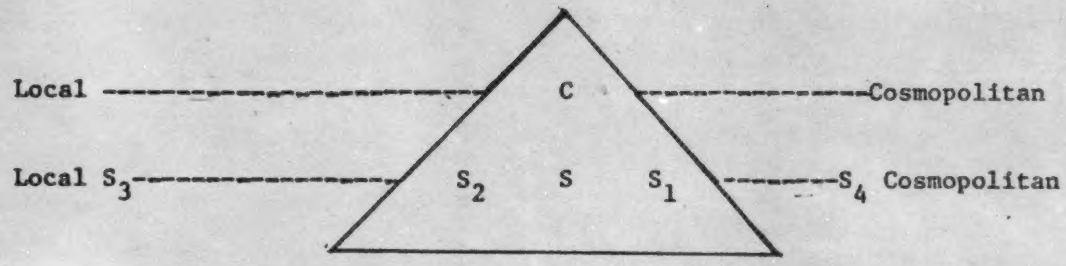
[116] John Sutthoff, "Local-Cosmopolitan Orientation and Participation in School Affairs," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1960).

[117] Barbara Peterson, "Adoption of Educational Innovations: A Social System Approach," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, UCLA, 1969).

FIGURE 1-4

ZONE OF TOLERANCE


Local
C
Cosmopolitan
Local S_3
S_2
S
S_1
S_4 Cosmopolitan

(Source: Joseph H. McGivney and William Magniton, "School and Community," TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD 74 (December, 1972), p. 221.)

In summary, research on innovations and particularly community acceptance of innovations, is lacking in several areas. It does not seem to meaningfully address the questions of how and why the community accepted the change, nor are the acceptance schemes linked to a community typology.

Home-School-Community Relations: A Functional Perspective

Home-school-community relations literature has too often focused only on public relations, citizens advisory committees, mass media, etc. This part of the related literature will attempt to distill and synthesize experientially, research, and practitioner oriented articles and books which illustrate a functional perspective.

Home-School-Community Concepts

This section will first analyze the efforts made at isolating key components of the home to school and school to home interaction and then will turn to the views of the community school, community centered school, and what constitutes the educational school-community environment.

Most of the research conducted on the relationships of home to school have used educational achievement as measured by standardized tests as the dependent variable in research involving hosts of independent sociological variables.[118] As Stearns concludes, direct or indirect parental involvement in a child's educational experience is more or less intuitively if not empirically sound. Sharrock has synthesized much of the British research on the relationships between school attainment and home background.[119] According to Sharrock, most of the British research shows that children from a lower social stratum tend to do less well at school than children from higher social strata. The British research also attempts to pinpoint the features of the home environment which explain school success or failure. Sharrock's conclusions lead her to call for more research into the home-school variables which would include the teacher in the analysis. In related research, Lindsay[120] studied two high school attendance areas near Glasgow in an attempt to isolate critical variables involving conflict resolution between school and community. In summary, no definitive conclusions have been determined from research on the relationship between academic attainment, home and school. Researchers are convinced that there is a significant relationship, but what that relationship is cannot as yet be ascertained.

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[118] Miriam Stearns, et al,, PARENT INVOLVEMENT IN COMPENSATORY EDUCATION PROGRAMS (Menlo Park, California: Stanford Research Institute, 1973).

Litwak and Meyer[121] have analyzed the relationships between home and school to answer questions more sociological in nature. In their theoretical framework, Litwak and Meyer assumed that there is a natural antagonism between schools as bureacracies and families as primary groups. Litwak and Meyer's research problem could be paraphrased into the following two questions: (1) If the same goals are to be maximized by home and school, do families and schools have qualities which bind themselves together regardless of the natural tension between the two; and (2) Could the relationship between home and school be conceptualized in a balance theory with social actors taking on nine various roles as linking pins between home and school? Using reading scores as a dependent variable, Litwak and Meyer selected eighteen schools for analysis in the greater Detroit area. Families became the unit of analysis by the researchers randomly selecting eighty-five children in each elementary school. Data collection included open-ended interviewing and survey questionnaires. In their conclusions, Litwak and Meyer were not able to determine whether a balance point existed between the home and school, nor were they able to distinguish among the nine hypothesized linking pins between home and school.

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[119] Anne Sharrock, "Relations Between Home and School," JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH 10 (1968), pp. 185-196.

[120] Catherine Lindsay, SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY (Edinburgh, Scotland: Pergamon Press, 1970).

[121] Eugene Litwak, et al., "Relationship Between School-Community Coordinating Procedures and Reading Achievement," ERIC ED 010 376, USOE Contract OEC - 3-10-033 (December 31, 1966).

Parsons and Cave[122] reported case study research on the interrelationships of affective goal congruence between home and school. They concluded that more emphasis sould be placed on the role of the parent as teacher-helper. They also concluded that the Mott foundation sponsored community school program offered the best structured school-community relationship because it contained a philosophy and role descriptions for concerted school-community interchange.

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[122] Thomas S. Parsons and William M. Cave, "Toward a Theory of Home, School and Community Interrelations," ERIC ED 020 526, 1968.

One facet of the home-school-community literature deals with the ways in which the school can use the community for relevant curriculum study. Newmann and Oliver[123] are concerned with several larger societal questions and models in their essay, "Education and Community." However, they do advocate the use of community seminars and the use of the community as a resource. Burnett and Burnett[124] want to change the concerns of community control oriented educators from governance back to the progressive ideals, which they relate to Dewey, of using the community as a primary resource in making education relevant to children.

The best known application of close school-community interchange would be the community school movement centered in Flint, Michigan. The community school movement began in 1935 and received its greatest financial impetus from the Mott Foundation. In the Flint plan, the school is viewed as the clearinghouse for neighborhood activities providing education, social services, and entertainment for adults as well as children. Burden and Whitt[125] have prescribed the principal's role in the community school. The community school movement has recently received a boost from the Federal government with the passage of funding legislation which allows community school programs to be federally funded. The community school program also received national prominence recently with a KAPPAN[126] issue devoted entirely to the community school concept.

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[123] Fred M. Newmann and Donald W. Oliver, "Education and Community," HARVARD EDUCATIONAL REVIEW 37 (Winter, 1967), 1, pp. 476-480.

[124] Jacquetta H. Burnett and Joe R. Burnett, "Twelve Issues in School Community Relations in the Present Period," 1972 ASCD YEARBOOK, pp. 345-371.

[125] Larry Burden and Robert L. Whitt, THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL: NEW HORIZONS (Midland, Michigan: Perdell Publishing Co., 1973).

The community school or community centered school is often seen as an alternative for urban education. Gold[127], for example, felt that parent-school breakdowns could be ameliorated by a community action approach for school-community relations. Provus[128], writing from an experiential base in New York City, felt that the need for a community centered urban elementary school is great, but the greatest problem is communicating with sub-publics. Wilcox[129], also writing from a New York experiential base, discussed how a program could be turned around in an urban area using the community centered approach. In Detroit, McClusky[130] advocated more advocacy for child welfare from the schools as well as an attempt to make schools more community centered.

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[126] W. Fred Totten, "Community Education: A Special Issue," PHI DELTA KAPPAN (November, 1972).

[127] Stephen F. Gold, "School-Community Relations in Urban Ghettoes," THE RECORD 69 (November, 1967), pp. 144-150.

[128] Malcolm Provus, "In Search of Community," PHI DELTA KAPPAN LIV, 10 (June, 1973), pp. 658-661.

[129] Preston R. Wilcox, "The School and the Community," THE RECORD 69 (November, 1967), pp. 132-142.

[130] Howard McClusky, "New Directions in School-Community Relations," ERIC ED 001 448, 1960.

Home-School-Community Relations and Communications

The fact that conflict resolution and parental grievance problems exist suggest that problems in communications also exist in the school system. An important part of the functional aspects of the home-school-community relations literature deals with communcations among the participants involved.

A change in philosophy has probably occurred regarding the communications process in home-school-community communications in the last twenty years. Kindred's SCHOOL PUBLIC RELATIONS[131], published in the early 1950's, stressed the Madison Avenue type of public relations techniques and their adaptations in the school administration field. Kindred described a we/they relationship between school and community and geared his concepts to a one-way public opinion oriented program of school-community relations.

Stiles[132] reported a study in the late 1960's that administrators and teachers are not prepared for the role of good public relations and that this communications inadequacy often results in their dismissal.

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[131] Leslie W. Kindred, SCHOOL PUBLIC RELATIONS (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957).

[132] Lindley Stiles, "Policy and Perspective," JOURNAL FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH (December, 1968).

Kelly[133], in turn, had some logical suggestions for superintendents for learning more about their communities, e.g. using a reputational grid for identifying influentials and being able to trace influence patterns. Belasco[134] warned administrators not to withhold information from parents by not communicating with all sub-publics in the school-community environment. Wilder[135] concluded from his research on goal differentiation in the school-community environment that differences between the populations of parents, students and school personnel were due to misinformation and the lack of information. Therefore the problems were basically communicative.

A great deal of research in home-school-community relations was done in the period 1955-66 by Carter and associates at Stanford University through the federally funded Project CAST.[136] The major collection of their data was done by interviewing ten key home-school-community participants in individual school settings, and then compiling their findings into a national sample of over 1,000 interviews. A variety of factor analyses were then computed. Their major finding indicated that informal communication is often perceived as being more effective than formal communication.

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[133] Sam P. Kelly, "Know Your Community," AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL 155 (May, 1968), pp. 14-15.

[134] James Belasco, "School Community Relations," Paper presented at 1970 AERA annual meeting (Mimeographed).

[135] David Wilder, "Actual and Perceived Consensus on Educational Goals Between School and Community," ER 023 939, 1968.

[136] Richard F. Carter and William R. Odell, PROJECT CAST V. 5 (Stanford, California: Stanford University, 1966).

A variety of dissertation research has attempted to describe the communications patterns found at the school or district level. In this area, Thomson[137] studied school-community communications systems in small school districts using survey instrumentation and a model validated by a panel of experts. He could find no consistent pattern of school-community communication. Blizzard[138] in a telephone survey in Tennessee found that a significant number of his household heads agreed not only that the schools do a good job but that they also agreed with school board decisions. However, he also found that the household head wanted more school information than they were receiving. Marnix[139] used a stratified sample of three occupational groups of parents of secondary school students in her communications study. Her findings reveal that parents are predominantly child oriented in informations desires, and that those parents in the manual/service occupational level desire more information than the professional and semi-professional occupational level. Parents desired more information about the school's needs and faults than about the good things that were happening. Anne Vnook Young[140] studied the differences in principal's role expectations in school-community relations between four high and four low income communities. Using a piloted questionnaire, Young found that the high income communities preferred greater principal leadership and two-way communication than did the low income communities.

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[137] Keith A. Thomson, "School-Community Communication Systems in Small School Districts: An Invesitigation of Present Methods and a Model for Utilization," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of South Dakota, 1973).

[138] Ralph M. Blizzard, "A Study of School-Community Communication in Four Local School Districts," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1972).

[139] Anne M. Marnix, "School-Home Communications: Information and Media Preferences of Parents of Secondary Students," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971).

Hoenes[141] studied four different methods of disseminating information about an industrial parts program to the community with the finding that a slide-tape method was most effective in gaining favorable perceptions. Winfield[142] gathered the reported research on mass media, communication, and school-community relations and offered a final suggestion that media presentations to school-community audiences be oriented to a target audience rather than using a broad based appeal approach.

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[140] Anne Vnook Young, "A Study of Role Expectations in School-Community Relations for the Elementary School Principalship in Communities of Widely Different Income Levels," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1965).

[141] Ronald LeChard Hoenes, "School-Community Relations: The Effectiveness of Four Techniques of Disseminating Information About A School's Industrial Arts Program to Its Community," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1970).

[142] Kenneth Winfield, "A Summary of Reported Research Studies Dealing With Selected Mass Media of Communication, and the Implications of the Findings for School-Community Relations Programs," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Temple University, 1965.

Other research has attempted to isolate the variables or evaluate the home-school community communication. Roberts[143] and Young[144] each developed instruments for evaluating school-community relations programs. Roberts concluded that his instrument needs more theory development and field testing. James Fred Young isolated sixty-six critical school-community activities from the literature but never field tested his instrument.

Diener[145], in the only dissertation research reported to date on home-school-communications in Individually Guided Education schools, used criteria developed from the literature to evaluate home-school communication in thirteen elementary schools. Results from factor analyses indicate that there is a lack of long-range home-school communication programs and a need to investigate and work on the home-school program.

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[143] Donald J. Roberts, "Developing an Interaction Matrix (Intermat) for School-Community Relations," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1964).

[144] James Fred Young, "An Instrument for Use in Evaluating Programs of School-Community Relations," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Columbia University, 1964).

[145] Jackquelyn M. Diener, "Identification and Evaluation of the Home-School Communications Program In Thirteen Individually Guided Education Schools in Alabama," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Auburn University, 1972).

Dady[146] probably summarized the communications research and writing correctly when she maintained that of the two primary modes, public information and public participation, mode number one has been tried and failed and educators must now try to deal with public participation.

Home-School-Community Relations: Public Involvement, Opinion, and Curriculum Change

As was discussed earlier, the ethic of public school efficiency and the role expectations of professional educators predicted a minimum of citizen involvement for many years and in many communities that ethic is still maintained. Campbell's[147] early attempts to distinguish role expectations in schools between the lay citizen and professional school worker result in a dichotomy between the citizen, who should get involved in what should be taught, and the professional, who deals with how it should be taught. He maintained, however, that administrators still should lead their schools and not be co-opted by community pressure.

Other writers have offered a vast panoply of techniques, how-to-do-it kinds of strategies for school community relations and public involvement. Sumption and Engstrom[148] discuss strategies, techniques, and needs. Fusco[149] takes a "cookbook" type of approach in devising strategies to meet the school practitioner's needs.

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[146] Miriam B. Dady, "Improving School-Community Relations," JOURNAL OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN EDUCATION V (Winter, 1972), 2, pp. 91-94.

[147] Roald F. Campbell and John A. Ramseyer, THE DYNAMICS OF SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS (New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1955).

[148] Merle R. Sumption and Yvonne Engstrom, SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966).

The legislative mandate of citizen involvement in school decision-making is relatively unclear in many states. Safran[150] recently concluded a nation-wide study with forty-eight states reporting their legislative codes or policies (Illinois and New York did not reply) regarding citizen involvement. He found that of the forty-eight, fourteen states demanded or recommended parental inclusion in school policy-making outside of the normal board of education route.

Many writers have offered both descriptive and prescriptive experiential accounts of their attempts to involve the public in school affairs. Weiler[151] provided a "how to do it" checklist for an administrator who is attempting to relate educationa changes to his school-community but stressed determining the temper of the community. Zeigler[152] synthesized research on education and change and used Charters' zone of tolerance discussed earlier in analyzing the school-community relationship to what he felt to be an absence of change in education.

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[149] Gene C. Fusco, IMPROVING YOUR SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAM (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967).

[150] Daniel Safran, "Preparing Teachers for Parent Involvement," (Center for the Study of Parent Involvement, Berkely, California, October, 1974).

[151] Daniel Weiler and Others, "School Community Relations and Educational Change," ED 054 536, 1972.

[152] Harmon Ziegler, "Education and the Status Quo," COMPARATIVE EDUCATION 6 (March, 1970).

Simple involvement can mean better school-community relations. School administrators and the local newspaper in Boise, Idaho, identified forty-nine volunteers to spend two weeks visiting schools in Boise.[153] The volunteers concluded their visits with impressions which showed support and concern for new ideas and change within the school system. Mauch[154], writing from experiences in urban schools, felt that breaking the established patterns through Title I to include parental input was a healthy thing for school-community relations. Wolotsky[155] also described the impact of parental inclusion in school activities in an urban setting with the creation of a meaningful school-community.

Morton and Morton[156] have added to the literature on Individually Guided Education and change by reporting their success in changing their Colorado elementary school over to an IGE instructional program. In a ten page chapter, they discussed how they involved parents through communication and inclusion in planning efforts. They stressed going through PTA's and normal school-community bodies, but recommended small group interaction for winning the parents over to the program.

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[153] "Citizens Endorse Change," Microfilm, SATURDAY REVIEW 54 (June 19, 1971), p. 53.

[154] James E. Mauch, "Breaking Tradition Forges School-Community Ties," PHI DELTA KAPPAN 50 (January, 1969), pp. 270-274.

[155] Hyman Wolotsky, "Parental Involvement" (New York: Bank Street College of Education, Revised Mimeograph, 1972).

[156] Richard J. Morton and Jane Morton, INNOVATION WITHOUT RENOVATION (New York: Citation Press, 1974).

Four dissertations in particular deal with the varieties of parental involvement in school affairs. Aldridge[157] studied the effects of citizen interviews by teachers and their effects of attitudes toward school. Using a classic pre and post three group design, he found positive respondent feelings towards school after the interviews but was not able to pin the positive feelings down to the interview itself. Leis[158] studied the relationship of school openness measured by the OCDQ and parental opinion in selected Colorado secondary schools and determined that there was a positive correlation between open climate and parental opinion. He also found that mothers in the forty to forty-nine age range with a high school education in the lower socio-economic group tended to become involved more than any other group. Baker[159] attempted to study differences in attitudes of parents, teachers and principals which might be caused by parental involvement in decision-making. Baker selected ten classes of students who were in federally funded programs which demanded parental involvement and compared them with ten classes where no involvement was mandated. Significant differences in attitudes were reported between the two groups and the parent-teacher conference was seen with the most favorable attitudes from both groups. Splann[160] studied Oklahoma superintendents' perceptions of real and ideal activities of their local PTA's and found that the majority of PTA's did very little to promote education, but they had the potential to do so.

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[157] William D. Aldridge, "Changing Public Attitudes Toward School Policies and Programs Through a Planned Program of Citizen Interviews by Teachers," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1967).

[158] Glenn A. Leis, "A Study of the Relationships Among: Organizational Climate of Selected Colorado Secondary Schools, Parent Opinion of These Schools, and Parent Demographic Variables," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Syracuse University, 1970).

[159] Jerriline Ann Baker, "A Study of the Attitudes of Parents, Teachers, and Principals Toward Parental Involvement in School Activities," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, North Texas State, 1973).

Finally, two dissertations have addressed themselves directly to parental inclusion in school change. Fläaten[161] used a jury of experts and a group of principals as his research base to report that both groups felt that elementary principal, teachers and parents should be involved in the area of curriculum improvement. Gredwick[162] studied parental attitudes towards schools and the implementation of an ITA reading program. Using a classic experimental design with pre and post tests and a control and experimental group, he did not reject his null hypothesis probably, as he reported, because both experimental and control parental groups had positive feelings toward school before the study.

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[160] Robert E. Splann, "The Oklahoma Public School Superintendents' Perceptions of the 'Real' Activities and the 'Ideal' Activities of Local Parent-Teacher Associations," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1966).

[161] Wayne R. Fläaten, "The Rule of the Elementary School Principal, Teachers, and Parents in the Area of Curriculum Improvement," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Brigham Young University, 1972).

[162] Donald A. Gredwick, "A Study of Parental Attitudes Toward Selected Aspects of Public Education Through Intensive Involvement in a New Instructional Program," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of New York-Buffalo, 1967).

The wide range of parental inclusion, opinion, and curriculum improvement research and writing discussed above stresses the "how to do it" kind of research and approach rather than the critical variables which might need to be analyzed. In particular, most efforts stress a descriptive and prescriptive orientation which hopefully will be enlarged upon with some critical analysis from this research.

Significance

Such a lengthy review of the literature indicates that a fusion of several related fields of inquiries has been attempted in this research which has not been done before. Exploratory case study research should crystallize variables for later verification. This research hopefully took home-school-community relations closer to an analysis of critical variables by adding a political view point heretofore unexamined by studying the implementation of the Individually Guided Education program in the home-school-community programs and activities, given the political variance of the neighborhood attendance area according to the McCarty/Ramsey typology.

The community typology literature should be enlarged by the use of the McCarty/Ramsey typology at the neighborhood attendance area. Further, the research experience suggested modifications in the typology and suggestions for community typology in the future. The change literature, both community analysis and intra-organizational analysis of innovations, should be enlarged by a greater understanding of how communities accept a systematic educational change in their home-school-community environment.

The practitioners should gain from the study first by analyzing the conceptual findings above but also from the descriptive reporting of what was done in four different home-school-community environments. Hopefully, the political framework used as a theoretical backdrop to the study will enlarge the conceptual map of the practicing school administrator.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter two treats the questions involved in the design and methodology of the study. Chapter three is a data presentation of the four case studies. Chapter four is the interpretation of the case studies along the conceptual frameworks, a reanalysis of the frameworks, recommendations and a summary.

CHAPTER II

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The review of the literature presented in Chapter I discussed the strengths and weaknesses of the research related to the local politics of education, community acceptance of change, and home-school-community relations. Specifically, little research other than Summerifeld's work has used a political framework at the neighborhood school level. Community power structure/typology research in education has been limited to the school district as the unit of analysis. Research which attempts to analyze change in educational systems is weak in analyzing the home-school-community environment, particularly at the neighborhood school level. Research and writing on home-school-community relations and its related fields has tended to be descriptive or functional rather than theory oriented.

Home-school-community relations earlier was defined as the effective 1. resolution of actual or potential conflict in the home-school-community environment and 2. allocation of scarce economic resources, differing social values, and unequal political power. The home-school-community environment includes school personnel, children, parents of the children in the school, and other significant sub-publics in the school attendance area.

The research was focused by the following four objectives:

1. To describe implementation of IGE and home-school-community relations of selected IGE elementary schools.

2. To explain the implementation of IGE and home-school-community relations programs and activities in a political framework using both issue analysis and policy analysis.

3. To generate hypotheses from the data gathered through objectives one and two, and relate them to existing theories particularly the McCarty/Ramsey community typology and also the Moynihan/McGivney zone of tolerance concept.

4. To generate practical recommendations for the public school audience.

A panel of researchers from the Wisconsin Research and Development Center Home-School-Community Relations Component, each of whom hac conducted previous field work at one or more of the initial research sites, selected four schools for this research from a list of eight on-going case studies. The panel used a set of criteria developed by this writer and Dr. McCarty. The criteria were similar to concepts employed in determining community typology as reported in THE SCHOOL MANAGERS. In these on-going research sites, issues had been nominated, key influentials had been singled out, and a timeline of the implementation of IGE had been worked out. The researcher was able to re-enter the field with a maximum level of knowledge about participants and issues, which, as Iannaccone[1] has suggested, is the best manner of conducting field work.

Prior to discussing the specifics of the research design and methodology, the conceptual frameworks which the research employed will be explained in three interrelated sections. They are: 1. Community typology, 2. policy process, and 3. zone of tolerance. A conceptual framework is necessary, as Wirt and Kirst[2] maintain, to give the field work an overall set of boundaries in which to work.

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[1] Laurence Iannaccone, "The Field Study in Educational Policy Research," Address prepared for the University of Wisconsin-Madison Conference "Policy Research: Methods and Implications," May 2, 1974 (Mimeographed).

Conceptual Frameworks

Prior to an analysis of the three conceptual frameworks for this study, a brief discussion of systems framework will help explain the organizing rationale for the conceptual frameworks.

Easton[3] translated the political variables of who gets what, where, when, and how into a systems framework involving inputs, a blackbox in which those inputs are converted, and outputs. Numerous other authors, such as Wirt and Kirst[4] and Scribner[5], have used the systems framework in their research in the politics of education. Easton's simplified systems framework is included as Figure 2-1, next page.

The systems framework will be important for this research only as an organizing rationale. One can assume the introduction of the

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[2] Frederick M. Wirt and Michael W. Kirst, THE POLITICAL WEB OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1972), p. 12.

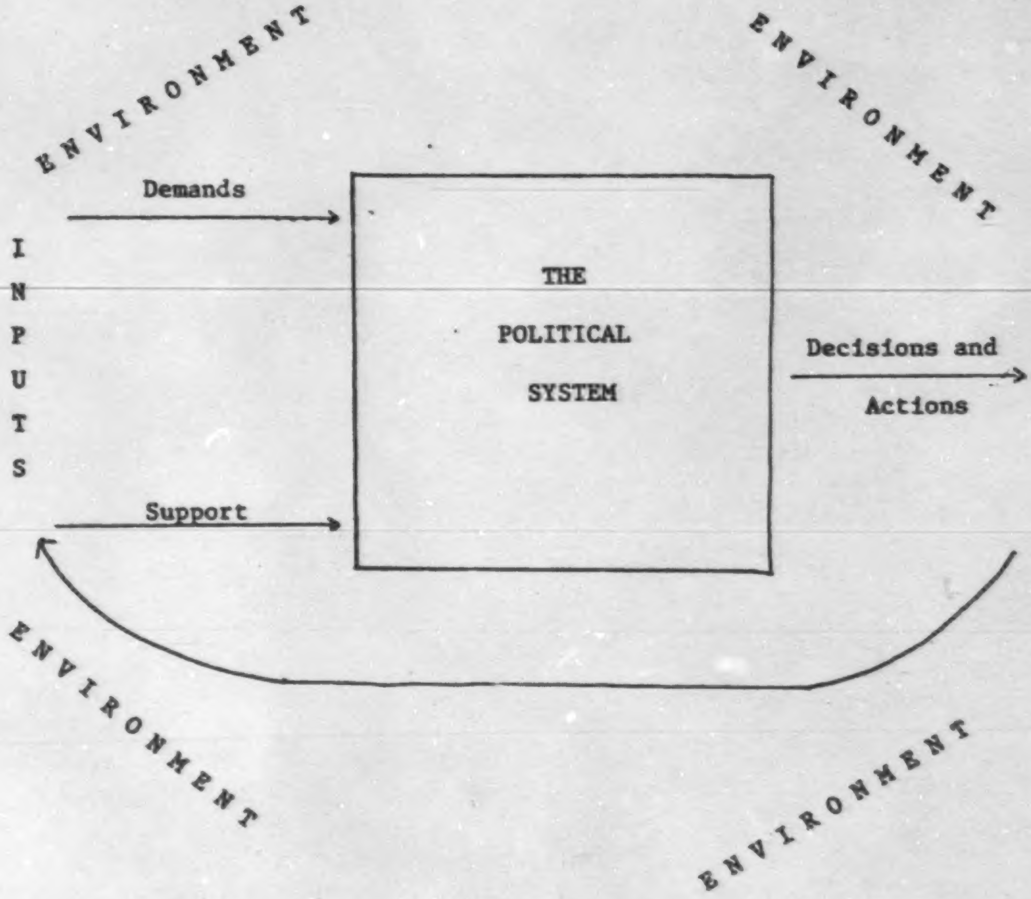
[3] David Easton, A FRAMEWORK FOR POLITICAL ANALYSIS (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965), pp. 111-113.

4. Wirt and Kirst, p. 13.

[5] Jay D. Scribner, "A Functional-Systems Framework for Analyzing School Board Action," EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION QUARTERLY 2 (Autumn, 1966), pp. 214-215.

FIGURE 2-1

EASTON'S SIMPLIFIED MODEL


ENVIRONMENT
ENVIRONMENT
Demands
INPUTS
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM
Decisions and Actions
OUTPUTS
Support
ENVIRONMENT
ENVIRONMENT

effort--input--some transformation in the black box--information, programs, activities to the home-school-community environment--and some output--parental acceptance or rejection of the innovation.

Community Typology

The steps which led from Hunter's pyramidal power elite to Dahl's pluralistic New Haven to the realization in the late 1960's that communities may vary in their political type has been discussed at some length before.[6] Research in the field of education has either tended to look for one particular type of power structure, or to resolve the methodological issues raised by Hunter, Dahl, and their colleagues. It was mainly the need for some type of resolution of these types of concerns that led McCarty and Ramsey to employe a three by four conceptual model on the interrelationships among superintendents, school boards, and communities, discussed at length in the previous chapter.

For purposes of this study, a means of attempting to insure political variance in the sample of schools was needed. The McCarty/Ramsey model seemed to explain the political behavior of school systems at the district level. Other community typologies were reviewed which employed terms similar to the ones which McCarty and Ramsey used to describe community types.

The political variance of the neighborhood school-communities was not a given, prima facie, of the research. Rather, it was one way of beginning to gather field data within a theoretical framework; initial categorizations were done in the form of working hypotheses. As the research progressed in the four sites, data were gathered to support or alter the original political type nominated. Lutz and Ramsey[7] recommend the use of what Geer calls working hypotheses, based "partly out of prior knowledge of the system being studied, partly from first observations, and partly due to conceptual and theoretical positions." Lutz and Ramsey continue, "but without working hypotheses and theory, data gathering is aimless and random."

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[6] See Chapter I, pp. 5-21.

For purposes of explication of the community typology model, this research incorporated the Hunter/reputational approach and the Dahl/event analysis approach by analyzing both political actors in the implementation process and the resolution of issues.

Political Actors.--The literature which discussed man as a political actor has been discussed at some length in Chapter I. The concept as it will be employed in this study will be defined as the realization that individual actors have power over information, value allocations and the timing of activities in the implementation of the innovation. For example, administrators can send their board members to successful rather than unsuccessful innovative schools (information); principals can earmark building monies for inservice (values and resource allocation) and principals and unit leaders can time the sending of information about the program to benefit their goals (power over timing). Individuals as political actors become acutely powerful and visible when there are issues to be treated in the environment.

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[7] Frank W. Lurtz and Margaret A. Ramsey, "The Use of Anthropological Field Methods," EDUCATIONAL RESEARCHER V. 3, No. 10, (November, 1974), pp. 5-9.

Issue Analysis.--The technique of issue or event analysis and its use in determining political pluralism has been discussed earlier with particular reference to Dahl and his associates.[8] For this research, an issue will be defined as a school-related topic of concern in the home-school-community environment.

Issues are the conceptual bases which hold analysis of political systems together. Without issues, Hunter[9] would not have been able to, or would have had a much harder time, discovering Atlanta's power elite. McCarty and Ramsey treat the level of issue resolution as one of their variables in their community typology categorization.[10] Edelman has noted that issues may be resolved in a symbolic fashion.[11]

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[8] See Robert A. Dahl, MODERN POLITICAL ANALYSIS (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963); Dahl, WHO GOVERNS (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1961); and Nelson W. Polsby, COMMUNITY POWER AND POLITICAL THEORY (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1963).

[9] Floyd Hunter, COMMUNITY POWER STRUCTURE: A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKERS (Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1953).

[10] Donald J. McCarty and Charles E. Ramsey, THE SCHOOL MANAGERS (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Corporation, 1971), pp. 15-22.

[11] Murray Edelman, THE SYMBOLIC USES OF POLITICS (Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1964).

Communities with either no issues nominated, or issues which were handled behind the scenes rather than openly, would offer any researcher great difficulties in ascribing a political typology. Further, the neighborhood elementary school is not a usual focal point for issue nomination and resolution in the educational community. Indeed, most communities still believe that education and politics are separate entities.

Policy Process

A key research assumption is that the implementation of Individually Guided Education would be perceived as a significant innovation in the home-school-community environment. Efforts were not made to differentiate between change and innovation, as Delbecq suggests[12], or whether change/innovation had actually occurred. Authors such as Gross et al.[13] and Sarason[14] have demonstrated that change in school settings may be an ephemeral notion. Thus, change and innovation will be used interchangeably in this discussion.

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[12] Andre Delbecq, concepts developed in Business 839 "Program Management" Spring Semester, 1975, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

[13] Neal Gross, Joseph B. Giacquinta, and Marilyn Bernstein, IMPLEMENTING ORGANIZATIONAL INNOVATIONS (New York: Basic Books, 1971).

[14] Seymour B. Sarason, THE CULTURE OF THE SCHOOL AND THE PROBLEM OF CHANGE (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1971).

Individually Guided Education has been defined by Klausmeier, et al, as a "comprehensive system of education and instruction designed to produce higher education achievements through providing well for differences among students in rate of learning, learning style, and other characteristics."[15] IGE has seven components. They are: 1. diagnostic instructional programming model, 2. multi-unit organizational plan, 3. program of home-school-community relations, 4. facilitative environments including IGE leagues and state networks, 5. evaluation, 6. research and development, and 7. curriculum materials. Decision-making is shared in an IGE elementary school through an Instructional Improvement Committee (IIC) made up of unit leaders and the principal.

The implementation of IGE was assumed to be of significance in the home-school-community environment. The manner in which that significance was translated in the home-school-community environment became a key variable in the implementation of the program. For example, if the key actors at the school decide to offer limited information, or package the innovation in terms which downplay the nature of the change, then IGE may not be perceived as a major innovation in that particular environment.

In order to understand the acceptance of the change in the home-school-community environment, a framework normally used in the legislative arena[16] was placed over the implementation in the home-school-community environment of IGE. Numerous other conceptual maps were considered, but they all seemed to be intra-organizationally oriented.[17] They addressed the acceptance of the change inside the organization without taking into account the total environment. The four phased policy process scheme chosen seemed to offer some recognition of an outside stimulus.

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[15] Herbert J. Klausmeier, et al., INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION AND THE MULTIUNIT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Madison: Wisconsin Board of Regents for the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1971), p. 17.

This policy scheme relies on the systems framework discussed above for its conceptual basis. The phases of this policy framework are explicated in the following section.

Initiation.--This is usually considered the problematic state, the snesing of a need for alternatives. For this research, initiation had two meanings: (1) *when/by whom/how was the IGE concept presented to the principal-staff-individual school*; (2) *when/by whom/how was the IGE concept presented to the home-school-community environment?* Closely related to the locus of initiation, especially if the school district's central office fostered consideration of IGE first, is the second stage, information.

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[16] B. Dean Bowles, "Educational Pressure Groups and the Legislative Process in California, 1945-1966" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Claremont Graduate School, 1966).

[17] See Chapter I, pp. 40-58.

Information.--Information in this research meant the types and styles of communication which spanned the home-school-community environment prior to and during the first year of implementation. The general orientation was how the home-school-community environment, especially parents of the children affected, learned about the IGE program.

Accommodation.--The accommodation phase is usually associated with the reduction of conflict generated by issues flushed out in the information phase. In this study it was defined as any change in original programmatic intent by the school. For example, if the community voiced concern about the lack of discipline, then how did the school respond? In relatively quiescent communities, accommodation points may occur very early in the change process, perhaps even before the information stage, in terms of how the program will be "sold" to the community. However, the general intent was to look at the change process as a rocky road fraught with possible difficulties which need home-school-community involvement and accommodation.

Legitimation.--In its strictest political sense, legitimation means the finalizing of a decision so that the decision will have legal impact on the political system. For this research, legitimation was changed to acceptance. Acceptance seemed to soften the harsh legalistic connotations which legitimation carried. Acceptance more accurately reflected the operative conditions in the field. For this research, acceptance will mean the consensual agreement that the IGE program has been accepted by actors in the home-school-community environment. A variety of respondents in the home-school community environment were asked at what point they felt the parents, in particular, accepted the IGE program.

Zone of Tolerance

Acceptance of change in the school-community environment has been a topic which has eluded successful analysis except in rare instances, other than the survey generated research discussed above.[18] The zone of tolerance concept was defined by Moynihan and McGivney as "the latitude or area of maneuverability granted (or yielded) to the leadership of the schools by the local community."[19] The zone of tolerance concept helped to crystallize the relationship between the home, the school, and the community.

Moynihan and McGivney based their analysis of the zone of tolerance from case studies done on educational change at the district level. This research analyzed the zone of tolerance at the neighborhood school level. This study did not attempt to apply the canons of statistical significance to a broad survey of the parents of the schools researched. Rather, the zone of tolerance concept was useful as a tool of probable deduction, rather than direct measurement, based on the questions and probes employed in the focused interviewing.[20] The political variance of the schools selected suggested, for example, that a pluralist school-community environment might accept a change effort in a different way than an inert school-community would. Either their zones of tolerance would be different, or the programmatic depth of the innovation would be masked such that parents could be enveloped with an acceptable zone of tolerance.

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[18] See Chapter I, pp. 46-54.

[19] Joseph McGivney and William Moynihan, "School and Community," TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD 74, 2 (December, 1972), p. 221.

[20] See Morris Zelditch, Jr., "Some Methodological Problems of Field Studies," AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SOCIOLOGY, 1962, 67, pp. 566-576; and William F. Whyte, "On the Evolution of Street Corner Society," in his STREET CORNER SOCIETY (University of Chicago Press, enlarged addition, 1955), pp. 279-358. Also B. Dean Bowles, "The Interplay of Research and Action," University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1967 (Mimeographed).

This exploratory, case study research rested on these three conceptual frameworks: (1) community typology, (2) policy process, and (3) zone tolerance. With an understanding of the conceptual frameworks, the following design and methodology should more easily be understood.

Design

This research had four major objectives:

1. To describe implementation of IGE and home-school-community relations in selected IGE schools.
2. To explain the implementation of IGE and home-school-community relations programs and activities in a political framework using issue analysis and policy analysis.
3. To generate hypotheses from the data gathered through objectives one and two, and relate them to existing theories particularly the McCarty/Ramsey community typology, policy process, and Moynihan/McGivney zone of tolerance concept.
4. To generate practical recommendations for the public school audience.

Based on the four objectives of the research and the conceptual frameworks discussed above, the following exploratory questions are divided into three sections: (1) community typology, (2) policy process, and (3) zone of tolerance.

Exploratory Questions

1.0 Community Typology

According to the McCarty/Ramsey model, what was the nature of the community power structure in each of the four home-school-community environments?

1.1 Who were the key actors in each home-school-community environment during the implementation of IGE?

1.2 What issues emerged during the implementation of IGE and how were they handled?

1.3 Were there any physical, demographic, or otherwise logical reasons for community power structure determination?

2.0 Policy Process

What was the nature of the policy process acceptance pattern of IGE in the four politically different home-school-community environments?

2.1 What was the point of initiation for IGE in the home-school-community environment?

2.2 What was the manner of information about IGE from school to home and community?

2.3 What were the points of accommodation regarding IGE implementation?

2.4 When was IGE accepted among the home-school-community actors?

2.5 What was the relationship between the McCarty/Ramsey community power structure determination and the home-school-community policy process acceptance pattern in each of the four home-school-community environments?

3.0 Zone of Tolerance

What was the nature of the zones of tolerance in each of the four home-school-community environments?

3.1 What was the latitude given to the educational leaders for the implementation of IGE?

3.2 What was the relationship between the McCarty/Ramsey community structure determination and the zone of tolerance in each of the four home-school-community environments?

Methodology

As a set of exploratory case studies, the research used a mixture of anthropological field methods. Observations were recorded, and documents were gathered, but the reliance was on focused interviews with nominated, random, and positional individuals. Kirst and Mosher[21], in their review of methodologies, describe two basic types of research methodology used in politics of education research as survey instrumentation or case studies. They feel that the case study method is best used in exploratory field work prior to verificational large scale study. Iannaccone probably has provided the best definition of field study[22], which follows:

> By field study, I mean a pattern of activities which shares most of the repetitive pattern of sequentially collecting data, analyzing it to develop crude hypotheses which guide the next stage of data gathering, collecting additional data, reanalysis and further hypotheses development, rechecking with additional data collection followed by continued reanalysis.

According to Iannaccone, field studies benefit from repetitive entries into the data sources. Field methodology for this study best approximates Iannaccone's field methods model of successive periods of data entries and analysis. Interviewing was done in two phases, first by the six members of the Wisconsin Research and Development home-school-community relations research team and them later by this researcher. The purpose of the first phase interviewing was to gather data for basic case studies on IGE elementary school home-school-community environments after they had implemented the IGE program of instruction. As *ex post facto* studies, they were to describe the implementation of the IGE program generally and devote specific attention to exemplary home-school-community programs. The two phased entry therefore allowed repetitive data collection and analysis as Iannaccone has suggested. It also encouraged the establishment of effective field relations with the initial research sites. Argyris[23] has maintained that building effective social relationships is important when engaging in exploratory field work.

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[21] Michael W. Kirst and Edith K. Mosher, "Politics of Education," REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH (V. 39, #5, Dec., 1969), pp. 623-641.

[22] Iannaccone address, p. 5.

The case study approach allows for the amplification of a great deal of descriptive data including human experiences, conflicts, issues, and sequences in decision-making. More importantly, it provides a vehicle for the generation of hypotheses for later verification on a larger scale. As has been discussed earlier, no similar research could be found in the related fields which could have offered hypotheses or models for a verificational type of study. Rather, a dearth of available research mandated an exploratory case study methodology to begin the research dialogue which ends up in verificational hypotheses for other students.

Selection of Schools

Final site selection for this research was taken from a pool of schools already under analysis by the home-school-community relations project of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center. Following a suggestion made by Dr. Frank Chase at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning National Evaluation Committee 1973 Home-School-Community Relations Fall Meeting[24] the project made a commitment to engage in exploratory field study of exemplary home-school-community relations programs and ideas which were on-going in IGE elementary schools.[25]

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[23] Chris Argyris, "Creating Effective Relationships," in HUMAN ORGANIZATIONAL RESEARCH: FIELD RELATIONS AND TECHNIQUES, ed. by Robert Adams and James Preiss (Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1960).

A list of schools were nominated by state IGE coordinators from the states in which the Wisconsin Research and Development Center had contractual implementation obligations. The state IGE coordinators were asked to nominate schools which they felt had exemplary home-school-community relations programs, activities, interesting or unique implementation histories or other characteristics which might lend themselves to interesting research sites. They were also asked to be sensitive to ethnic makeup, urban/rural considerations and the normal desire for variance in the schools nominated. Project members took their initial listings and winnowed their nominations down to fifteen schools in seven states. Each of the schools in this sample met minimal criteria for being considered an IGE school. Those criteria are: (1) use the IPM (diagnostic curriculum model) in at least one curricular area, (2) have an IIC (Instructional Improvement Committee made up of principals and unit leaders) which meets once a week, (3) have a multi-unit organizational plan school wide, and (4) group children into multi-age units for at least one curricular area.

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[24] Each component of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center undergoes an annual advisory review by a distinguished panel. Dr. Frank Chase chaired the Home-School-Community Relations Section and has been familiar with the project for some time.

[25] A casebook titled "The Implementation of IGE and Home-School-Community Relations" ed. by William R. Miles will be published in September by the Wisconsin Research and Development Center. Other on-going research related to the project are dissertations done by William H. Klenke. "The Multi-Unit School and the Instructional Programming Model: Power, Values, and Resources," and Thornton A. Liechty, "Citizen Participation in Educational Systems."

A helping factor during this process of sifting and winnowing down the research sites was that one of the project members had been on the Wisconsin Research and Development Center's National Implementation Team for two years, had traveled extensively, and knew some of the elementary schools which had been nominated. Eight research sites were selected for project research based on ethnic sensitivity, socioeconomic status, geographical dispersion, population density, and variations known in their home-school-community activities.

Four elementary schools were selected for this research from the eight nominated above. Selection was done after the first round of interviewing and field work had been done by project members. The researcher was able to capture, as Geer[26] has so aptly stated, the exploratory notions of their first days in the field. A checklist was formulated from criteria used by McCarty and Ramsey and adapted to fit the elementary school environment by this researcher and Dr. McCarty. Project members were asked to respond to the checklist by writing in the research site which fit the characteristics on the checklist. The ten items in the checklist were repeated four times with various semantic changes to fit an inert, factional, dominated, or pluralist environment (the checklist is included as Appendix A to the dissertation). After the initial impressions had been gathered, project members discussed the research sites with this writer and arrived at a consensual agreement about the political nature of the home-school-community environment. The categorical system is much like the one which McCarty and Ramsey used in ascertaining research type school district fit into their typology.[27] The sites were selected within a theoretical framework as working hypotheses, rather than prima facie givens. One of the original four research sites dropped out at a later date and had to be replaced by a backup site which purportedly had similar characteristics.

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[26] Blanche Geer, "First Days in the Field," in SOCIOLOGISTS AT WORK, ed. by Philip Hammond (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday Anchor Books, 1967 edition).

The four research sites selected for reentry are the following: (1) Inert--a rural Midwest school district with two four classroom IGE elementary schools, (2) Factional--a suburban middle class elementary school near the Rocky Mountains, (3) Dominated--an upper lower class/lower middle class suburban black district and elementary school in the West, and (4) Pluralist--an upper middle class/lower upper class suburban elementary school in the East.

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[27] McCarty and Ramsey, pp. 248-249.

Sources of Data

The researcher attempted to gather data using a variety of anthropological field methods, Field notes and rough drafts of initial case studies from prior research were used to gather basic information. Anecdotal information was gathered from state coordinators and Research and Development Center personnel familiar with the research sites. More specifically however, the researcher relied on the following sources of data which will be explicated in greater detail in the following section:

1. Interviewing--Both the first phase open ended interviews conducted by this researcher in two of the four cases and others in the other two cases as well as a more structured set of interviews conducted by this researcher were the primary means of data collection.

2. Observation--In both the first phase and second phase of data collection, time was allowed for on site observation of the school and home-school-community activities such as attendance at PTA meetings and the like.

3. Documents--Principals and related personnel were open and free with documents regarding contractual obligations, personal memoranda, etc.

4. Newspaper Clippings--Either knowledgeables or this researcher searched approprite newspapers for clippings regarding some historical point in the development of the case studies.

5. Census Data--After research site selection was completed, the University of Wisconsin Demography Center was contracted to produce demographic data on the school districts and the tracts which encompass the elementary school area.

A case study format was developed for the research and was employed to code relevant data about the research site from source documents and prior interviews (that format is included as Appendix F). The research could capitalize, therefore, upon a first set of interviews, relevant topics for further research including nominated influentials, issues, and personality clashes in each of the four research sites. However, each of the five methods of data collection represents a unique source and needs to be explained further.

Interviewing.--Interviewing comprised the major source of data collection.[28] At the start of the field research in each site, interview schedules were relatively straightforward and uncomplicated. Jahoda[29] has suggested that an open-ended format is useful when engaging in exploratory field work. It allows maximum flexibility for attempting to uncover the basics of complex situations. Interviewing and data collection in general was done in three phases.

In the first phase, project members devised a common five question schedule (Appendix B). This schedule insured a flexible interview format but stressed common topics. The sample for the first phase of interviewing included positional and randomly selected subjects. Approximately twenty-five to thirty-five interviews were conducted during the first phase of interviewing. Principals served to coordinate the gathering of the research subject sample. During the actual interview, subjects were informed of the purposes of the research, the non-evaluative nature of the task, and were insured confidentiality. In two of the four research sites, Wisconsin Research and Development Center Home-School-Community Relations Project Members other than this researcher conducted the first phase of interviewing. They later allowed me complete access to their data.

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[28] A detailed breakdown of the numbers and types of interviews is included as Appendix D of the dissertation.

[29] Marie Jahoda, RESEARCH METHODS IN SOCIAL RELATIONS (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1967), pp. 260-263.

In the second phase, a more detailed interview schedule was constructed (Appendix C). Information for this second schedule was drawn from field notes, interviews, anecdotes, and rough drafts from the first phase of the research. Regarding the use of interviewing as a research technique, Kerlinger has stated:

> When used with a well-conceived schedule, an interview can obtain a great deal of information; it is flexible and adaptable to individual situations, and it can often be used when no other method is possible or adequate.[29]

Analysis of the phase two interview schedule will attest to its detailed nature. From the first phase of interviews a list of ten to twenty-five individuals was formed using the reputational, positional, and event analysis techniques. A conscious attempt was made to mix subject selection methodologies, as has been suggested by later community power researchers. Twenty to thirty individuals were interviewed in the second phase of interviewing. All of the interviewing was done by the researcher with the exception of ten interviews conducted by Mr. William Klenke at the western research site.

In corresponding or talking with the research site principal prior to phase two entry, the researcher explained that exploratory case study research usually has at least two phases of data collection and that the first phase of interviewing had left some gaps in the data which needed to be filled. In two of the four cases, a few subjects knew that information was being gathered for a dissertation, but it never seemed to hinder the interview process. When the second phase interview began, first phase interviewing was reviewed and subjects were told that specific gaps in the data needed to be filled, thus allowing for a more focused interview. Interviews usually lasted forty-five minutes to an hour and were usually held at school, though some interviews were conducted in the home. Confidentiality of the data was again insured, and in some cases the process of anonymitizing the cases was gone over to insure privacy. In addition, in-depth interviews were conducted with the principals at the four schools. Two of those four interviews were tape recorded and transcribed at a later date; each was over two hours long which made note taking somewhat prohibitive.

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[29] Fred N. Kerlinger, FOUNDATIONS OF BEHAVIORAL RESEARCH (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 472.

Between Phase I and Phase II of the interviewing, a total of two hundred and twelve interviews were conducted in the four research sites. The combined total of interviews in each of the cases could be broken down in the following manner: (1) Inert Case--65 interviews (Rural City in Chapter III); (2) Factional Case--52 interviews (Kennedy Elementary School); (3) Dominated Case--33 interviews (Kenyatta Elementary School); (4) Pluralist Case--62 interviews (Wilson Elementary School).

In the third phase of interviewing, an attempt was made to have selected actors at each research site verify the substantive aspects of the case studies. Two individuals were designated at each research site to serve as case study verifiers. They were each mailed or brought rough drafts, unanonymitized versions of the final drafts to read and analyze for factual or substantive errors or omissions. A trip was made to each research site to conduct final one to two hour interviews with each verifier. In each case, the principal was included as one of the verifiers. In the pluralist and the factional school-communities, a parent served as a second verifier. In the inert case, the second verifier was the district superintendent. In the dominated case, both an elementary school teacher and a college instructor, who had worked with the school system, helped verify. Verifiers were paid an honorarium of $50 for helping insure factual representation of the school and the district. They realized that the cases would be anonymitized later and were fully aware of the purposes of the research.

In the pluralist and also the dominated research sites, strenuous objections were raised about the connotations of some words, the overall tone, and some of the substance. In the pluralist case study, three hours of telephone interviewing helped clarify the points in question. In the dominated site, the verifier supplied a tape recording of the objections as well as written comments. Regarding the points of substance, further re-analysis of the data was made to insure that an accurate portrayal of the facts had been made. Words and phrases which had been objected to were changed, when possible, to neutralize possible negative connotations. Moreover, in each case the individual's objections were not shared with the other verifier to any significant degree.

Observation.--Observation as a field methods research technique is best employed as a long term project, as Wolcott[30] has explained. Geographical dispersion of the four sites did not allow for that type of lengthy observation. Some time was allotted during the first and second phases of research for observation in the school of the actual school program. Attempts were made to talk to children who were free at that time. In certain instances, timing of the second research entry allowed for observation and/or participation in home-school-community programs and activities. For example, the researcher observed the PTO spring elections at one site, and later talked informally with the members of the Parent Advisory Board about change processes and the selection of a new principal for the school. However, observation was not a field method which was relied on to any great extent for systematic generation of field notes.

Documents.--In each of the four research sites, principals and in some cases central office personnel opened up their files to the researcher for analysis and copying if the information seemed pertinent. In addition, several personal memoranda which skirted sensitive issues were shared on a confidential basis. These documents normally tended to verify historical items, rather than open up new avenues for the research.

Newspaper Clippings.--When appropriate and time allowed, searches were made in the local newspaper files, or subjects offered their clippings for copying. These clippings tended, as did the documents, to offer a historical verification of dates, names, and situations which had been nominated in the interviewing process. They also served to document the type of coverage which the school and the district commanded in the local newspaper.

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[30] Harry F. Wolcott, "An Ethnographic Approach to the Study of School Administration," HUMAN ORGANIZATION 29:115-122.

Census Data.—After initial site selection for this research, the University of Wisconsin Demography Center was contacted about access into their census files. The census information played no part in research site selection and can only be regarded as post factum data. However, data for a variety of demographic tables were generated by the demography center for both the school district and the census tracts which the elementary school served. That information later proved valuable in explaining the demographic makeup of the cases and is included in tabular form as an appendix of the dissertation.

Data Treatment

Interviews from the first phase of the research process were gathered from the research team, read by this researcher, notes were taken, and then discussed with the appropriate members of that research team. In two cases of the four, initial research was conducted by this researcher. A timeline of IGE implementation, home-school-community programs and activities, issues, and key influentials were drawn from that first set of interviews and served as the basis for the second round of research. A case study format, discussed above, was agreed upon and information was transferred to that outline whenever possible to encapsulate the gathered data.

A complete file drawer was allowed to each of the four case studies in a five drawer file. Folders were coded in each file drawer around the following topics: 1) demographic data, 2) documents, 3) cover sheets from the second round of interviewing, 4) first questions (first two pages), 5) implementation questions, 6) home-school-community programs and activities, 7) issues, 8) first phase interviews, 9) rough drafts, outlines, etc.

Rough drafts of the four cases were written from the case study outline discussed earlier. Those rough drafts were taken back to two influentials in each of the four research sites for verification of names, dates, and places. The research cycle recommended by Iannaccone was then made complete by entry, analysis, reentry for further data collection, further analysis, and finally verification.

Limitations

Case study exploratory studies are open to several types of limitations However, the major objectives of the research were to provide possible verifiable hypotheses, rather than answers definitive at the .01 level of significance.

Selection of the first set of eight project research sites may have been biased or may have drawn an atypical sample of schools. State IGE coordinators may have nominated their favorite schools for one reason or another, or might have envisioned an exemplary case study write up by the organization which founded the innovation as a political payoff to a deserving school. The sample was not drawn, however, for its representativeness. Rather, it was drawn as an exemplary listing of schools.

The set of four final research sites along the political variance criteria discussed earlier may have been done without a large enough set of schools to insure the proper fit into the McCarty/Ramsey typology. However, the typology was employed, again, as a working hypothesis rather than definitive statements on the political nature of that home-school-community environment,

What the researcher perceived as an important innovation, the Individually Guided Education, may not have either been perceived as such at the research site or more importantly may not have been presented as an important innovation to the traditional program. Instead of being a limitation, this could later prove to be of great significance in the analysis of the data. A key outcome of this study may be that in order to bring in something new, one needs to mask it in the cloth of old.

In the final analysis, the researcher may have isolated inappropriate variables in the home-school-community process or may have used an inappropriate set of concepts and models in order to explicate the data analysis. However, it was at least a start in the research process, a start which attempted to integrate and operationalize the real world into theoretical findings,

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HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS AS A POLITICAL PROCESS: FOUR EXPLORATORY CASE STUDIES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION (IGE) AND HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

by

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Report from the Project on
Organization for Instructional Administrative Arrangements

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CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF FOUR CASE STUDIES

Four case studies will be presented in this chapter. After background on the district community and the elementary school-community area, the implementation of IGE will be described. A section on home-school-community relations programs and activities will follow, and a section on issues in the school-community environment will conclude the case study.

Inert School-Community: Rural City*

The implementation of IGE in Rural City is an excellent example of how experienced administrators, who are lifelong residents and trusted by the community, can successfully change over the organizational pattern of elementary schools with little if any real difficulty. IGE was often represented as something like the multi-aged rural schools that many parents had experienced in their education.

Norman Svenson and Rose Gethryn orchestrated implementation efforts in Rural City with considerable aid from school superintendent Dan Roridan, then from his successor Ted Abbott. The methods of communicating

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*A case study which draws upon the data presented here as the Inert School-Community will be forthcoming as "Reorganization in Rock Falls" by William R. Miles and Marvin J. Fruth, Case Five in James M. Lipham and Marvin J. Fruth, THE PRINCIPAL AND INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION, Addison Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Mass., 1976.

IGE to parents included newspaper coverage and large group meetings, but centered around one-to-one communication--teacher to parent, administrator to parent.

As might be typical of a rural environment, there are few if any issues of great concern in Rural City. If problems arise, they are quickly handled by informal dialogue and thus rarely surface into open confrontations.

Community and School District Background

The City and Surrounding Areas

Rural City has a population of about 2,500. Since Rural City is the county seat, the courthouse, hospital, and an older citizens' home are located there. Rural City is located on the Caton River, which more or less splits the city in half. The actual city consists of a shop-lined main street surrounded by residential areas. It might help to document the rural quality of Rural City by noting that there is only one supermarket in the city, and there are no stoplights.

The major occupations of the residents of the Rural City are service industries oriented to the farming community which surrounds the city. There is no industry located in Rural City other than the shops and services required by the farming industry.

The surrounding farm communities are clustered around three rural crossroads townships--Rosette, Elm Hollow, and Cedar Crest. Each of these areas have four-room schools and feed into the Rural City Joint School District. Each will play an important part in this case study.

The Rosette area is a small dairy farming community which has a preponderance of Swiss descendants. One Rosette resident maintained that the pioneering families knew each other in the Berne, Switzerland, area and emigrated on the word of the first two settler families. The adults of Swiss origin there now are generally second- or third-generation descendants. The Elm Hollow area went through a transition from small to larger farms in the late 1960's and now has more beef farming than dairy farming. Cedar Crest is dominated by a few very large (over ten children) families with large farms. There isn't much of a residential settlement in any of the above towns. Rosette and Cedar Crest each have a school and a church, which give the crossroads some semblance of a community.

People in Rural City seem to operate in a relatively homogeneous value system. The ethnic origins of the area are predominantly Northern European. The area was first settled by English and Pennsylvania Dutch immigrants, followed by a heavy influx of Catholic Irish and Germans. Norwegian and Swiss settlers came to the area later. The Swiss brought over the cheese making trade and settled into dairy farming. The protestent ethic seems to prevail. A large number of Rural City high school graduates go on to further schooling.

Politically, Rural City is considered a conservative community. They continually reelect a conservative Republican to the state Senate; until recently, Democrats and liberals have been rebuffed in their attempts to gain office. One of the local newspaper owners happens to be a Democrat, and her supposed liberal attitudes are tolerated as one might tolerate a local gadfly from the mainstream of thought.

Rural City's educational philosophy can best be capsulized by saying that it wishes to do its best for its children. Residents feel that theirs has been one of the more innovative school districts in their part of the state in the last ten years. For example, the high school implemented a modular schedule program six years ago. Rural City is one of a very small number of districts in that region in which there are IGE schools. It would be wrong to misconstrue Rural City's educational philosophy into a liberal-conservative philosophical continuum. Rather, educational innovations are good if they're good for the kids. Child-centered approaches are the best ways to initiate change in Rural City.

School District History

Rural City School District is a unified district which serves approximately 1300 students. Unification occurred in the late 1950s when three rural four-room schools were merged with the city schools to form the joint school district. These smaller districts, Rosette, Elm Hollow, and Cedar Crest, had just built new four-room school facilities. The Rural City district system took them over as a part of the district plant operation, taking over their indebtedness as wel. Not all of the rural people welcomed unification with the Rural City district. The rural schools served as the center of social activity for their communities. Many of the farmers were suspicious of the larger district and regretted their loss of autonomy.

The school district superintendency in Rural City was dominated by Mr. M. T. Myer for twenty years until he retired in the middle 1960s. Myer was evidently several administrators rolled into one, including a business manager, buildings principal at different times, and so on. He is remembered as being an authoritarian administrator who had the reputation of running a tight ship. The high school principal, Anthony Hughes, succeeded into the superintendency and evidently tried to loosen up the tightness of past administrative practices. Hughes served as both high school principal and district superintendent. He is credited as being the individual most responsible for bringing modular scheduling into the high school in the late 1960s. Evidently, however, he couldn't take some of the community pressure which a school superintendent has to handle, because he abruptly resigned his position in an open meeting in the spring of 1971 over the issues of his handling of the school lunch program, high taxes, and his salary, and went on to a high school principalship elsewhere in the state.

Since July of 1971, Rural City has had two different superintendents. Dan Roridan held the post for one year, from July 1971 to June 1972. He was a pivotal person in the introduction of IGE in Rural City. Roridan resigned his superintendency to complete his residency for a Ph.D. degree. Roridan is very well thought of in Rural City. Ted Abbott succeeded Roridan in the superintendency and is still at that post.

Rural City has been fortunate to have little significant tax rate change in the past three to four years. Their equalized value figures look like this over the last three years:

Equalized value per child in '73-'74 was $45,632/child.

Equalized value per child in '74-'75 was $54,353/child.

Enrollments have been dropping in the last three years at the rate of forty to fifty children per year. The Rural City district has had three stable years for finances, however, because of a declining debt service and increased aid due to the state's equalization policies plus some sound budgeting policies.

Rural City's board of education has nine voting members. They are elected for three year terms on a rotating basis. There seems to be an informal agreement to representational voting areas. That is, there seems to be one voting member from each of the three outlying areas not by policy or law but as an assumed arrangement. Incumbent board members usually run unopposed for reelection. One individual just completed twenty years on the board. Another board member held the unofficial Rosette position which had been in the family for at least fifteen years and included duty on the Rosette School Board before reorganization occurred. The large number of board members makes it difficult for the board to become factionalized.

The style of the board seems to be that they rely on the superintendent to be an educational leader who will make proposals after thorough background work. The board likes to be kept informed of developments, but they rely on their administrators to run the schools. Board members are free, however, to respond to particular issues in a form of conflict resolution. When a particular constituent calls a board member with a complaint, the board member calls the superintendent. He may, in turn, call on his line administrator to handle the issue. The superintendent will tend to report back to the board member within twenty-four hours on the issue raised. The need for this method of conflict resolution doesn't usually come up more than three or four times a year.

There is a teachers' association in the Rural City district. Teachers are organized with association leadership resting in the junior high school. The association, however, does not seem to be a powerful political force either in the school or the community and did not offer any resistance to the introduction of IGE into Rural City.

It might prove illuminating to analyze Rural City's organizational history before looking at IGE adoption and implementation. There were four elementary schools in the Rural City school district as well as a one-room kindergarten school. An elementary school was located in each of the three outlying rural units and one was located in town. Prior to IGE, each of those elementary schools was run as a self-contained unit drawing upon the local population from the surrounding farms or city. When the small farms were consolidated into larger farms in the latter 1960s, many schoolaged children moved away. Also, the declining birth rates undoubtedly caught up to Rural City in the latter 1960s. One sees the dilemma of townships with a neighborhood school policy and relatively new schools, faced with declining enrollments. Remember that each of the three rural units had built a new school just prior to reorganization and unification in the late 1950s.

Bus routing was one of the tasks handled by the elementary principal, Norman Svenson. Svenson was elementary principal in Rural City for ten years prior to his retirement in June, 1974. Prior to his administrative post, Svenson was junior high social studies teacher and high school football coach. He is a very likable person, well-respected in the community. He was born in Rural City and returned to teach there. By 1971 he had lived in the community for nearly thirty years, knew everyone, and had built especially good contacts through coaching football. Mr. Svenson was ably assisted by Rose Gethryn, the elementary supervisor who also retired in 1974.

Miss Gethryn had also been born in Rural City and returned there to work for thirty years. For many years she was the county elementary supervisor, traveling to the rural one-room schools and serving as administrative liaison between the county office and the schools. Miss Gethryn's position was incorporated in the Rural City reorganization in the late 1950s. She very nicely complemented Mr. Svenson's personality and job viewpoint. There seemed to be an unwritten job description among Mr. Svenson, Miss Gethryn, and administrative higher-ups which resulted in Svenson handling the public relations aspects of the job—conflict management, meeting with parents, teachers, etc.—and Miss Gethryn handling the classroom teacher supervision, book ordering, etc.

Implementation of IGE

The point of initiation for IGE in the Rural City school system rests with the former superintendent, Mr. Roridan. According to some board members, he was hired with the mandate to "shape up" the elementary schools. He was not hired to bring in IGE. Roridan maintains that he felt he was hired with the task of evaluating alternatives for the elementary schools. One of those alternatives was IGE. The district's inservice theme for the 1971-1972 school year was an analysis of the elementary school situation. What factors called for an analysis of the elementary schools?

There are probably many different answers to that question. One reason certainly was the bus routing problem in filling up the rural schools, especially the Rosette school. Mr. Svenson was forced to have children ride forty to fifty minutes each way to justify keeping the Rosette school open. Another reason centered around a desire for some innovation at the elementary school level to keep pace with the innovations in the high school. A final reason was that Hughes, the superintendent prior to Roridan, supposedly had left a list of district priorities, number one of which was upgrading the elementary schools.

Awareness of IGE

Rural City's first formal contact with IGE came when Roridan called Fred Trist, the IGE coordinator at the Department of Public Instruction (DPI). Roridan maintains that he, Mr. Svenson, and Miss Gethryn were only looking at a variety of alternatives, one of which was IGE. They looked at multi-aging, team teaching, and nongradedness, but IGE seemed to have each woven into it.

In late summer of 1971, the board of education approved a search into alternatives for the elementary school program. Bob McCarthy and Fred Trist from DPI visited early in the fall with Roridan, Svenson, and Gethryn. In October, 1971, Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn attended a nearby IGE awareness conference. Subsequently they also visited nearby IGE schools.

Roridan should not be seen as the sole protagonist for IGE in Rural City. As discussion seemed more and more to be centered on the IGE program, there were two key individuals who needed to be convinced—Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn. What convinced them? Svenson was already feeling the pressure of the bus routing problem. In order to keep the neighborhood elementary school policy, he was faced with possible need to close a classroom out in Rosette while renting one or two classrooms from the parochial school in town, and he knew that the board of education did not want to do that. An elementary reorganization would result in new bus routes and better use of existing facilities. Roridan later stated about the convincing of Svenson, "I sold him on the busing and the instructional program." Miss Gethryn evidently fell into line more on the soundness of WDRSD and the realization that things did need to be shook up once in a while.

The board of education members had been kept informed periodically by Roridan about the progress of the elementary reorganization investigation. In January, 1972, Roridan accompanied two board members, Fred Tipton and Rod Schmelzer, the unofficial representative from Rosette, on a visit to a nearby IGE elementary school. Schmelzer's early commitment to IGE proved pivotal in winning over the Rosette area.

Commitment

By the end of January 1972, no formal commitment had been made to implementing an IGE program in Rural City. However, Roridan definitely was orchestrating movements toward that end. He, Svenson, and two teachers, Kerry Trent and Bobbie Marco, attended a suprintendent/principal/

teacher IGE workshop in January.

Subsequently, Roridan arranged for Mr. Trist to come into Rural City once a week and teach a class on IGE to interested teachers. The class ran from February to May, 1972. Teachers had to pay a $25 registration fee, but were awarded credits on their salary schedule for possible pay increments. Although attendance was voluntary, all of the elementary teachers in Rural City attended the class except those who were going to retire that spring. Also, two teachers from the parochial elementary school and two members of the high school staff attended the inservice class.

Information to Parents

The weekly newspaper began to focus on IGE as a news item in early 1972. A February 3, 1972, article outlined IGE as an instructional program and mentioned the inservice class and various meetings which had been attended. A March 9 article followed up on the inservice class, discussing some of the teachers' activities there. A March 23 article discussed IGE in terms of teachers attending the class "in preparation for implementing an Individually Guided program of instruction for the elementary school youngsters."

That article also called for parent attendance at an IGE informational meeting to be held at the final inservice class on March 27 in the junior high school. That March 27 meeting was attended by approximately 150 parents. The meeting began with an IGE overview by Mr. Roridan. He then broke the group into small groups clustered around teachers.

If there was any agreed upon "sales pitch" to promote IGE in Rural City, it was that IGE meant that kids could compete better among themselves in a multi-aged setting. Children were the primary focus of parental attention, therefore it should be emphasized that IGE was good for kids. Continuous progress and multi-age grouping became translated into analogies to the one-room school and competition among intellectual peers rather than age peers.

School Changeover

The Elm Hollow Elementary School was chosen to implement IGE first, starting in the fall of 1972. Elm Hollow is a four-room rural school with an adjoining gym/multipurpose room. Bobbie Marco, the unit leader there, has been teaching in Rural City for approximately twenty years. Her mother had been a teacher there before her. Bobbie evidently was selected to become unit leader on the basis of her enthusiasm for IGE, her leadership ability, and her rapport with the community.

Prior to the fall implementation in May of 1972, teachers at Elm Hollow had a trial run IGE organizational arrangement for three weeks. Why was Elm Hollow Elementary School chosen? Of the three outlying rural schools, it had the best potential unit leader, Bobbie Marco. It also had the weakest rural centeredness in the community. Parents in Elm Hollow identified more with the city of Rural City than with the actual Elm Hollow area. By the end of the spring semester, 1972, a genuine commitment to trying IGE had been made by teachers, administrators, and board members. A wait-and-see posture had been taken by parents.

One of the parents later mentioned the typical attitude taken toward the implementation of IGE in this way: "Well, Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn are the educators; if they say it's a good program, it must be okay."

Teachers at Elm Hollow were brought in for three days of IGE preservice activity prior to the actual opening of school in the fall of 1972. Parents were invited to attend the last preservice session prior to school's opening. Elm Hollow was to open with the 90 children who would be in grades one and two at Elm Hollow and from the city. Cedar Crest and Rosette Elementary Schools remained essentially the same for the school year 1972.

How did the first semester of IGE implementation go at Elm Hollow? By all accounts, IGE implementation went very smoothly. Good school-community contacts continued through the Elm Hollow Elementary School the fall of 1972. Parents were encouraged to visit the school and attend classes during Education Week. In addition, an Open House was held so that not only Elm Hollow parents but all parents who were interested in the IGE program could attend and talk to the teachers.

When did the Elm Hollow parents actually accept the IGE program? Most observers feel that by the November, 1972, Open House parents were satisfied with the program. The overwhelming answer to the question of why they had accepted IGE was that children came home happy and satisfied with their educational program. Perhaps the well-known Hawthorne effect is at work here; but the actual reason for acceptance may be that the teachers had been thoroughly trained and had had trial period of IGE implementation, and had therefore carried it off successfully.

The Elm Hollow parents had read newspaper articles on IGE and had probably talked informally with school leaders like Bobbie Marco, Norman Svenson, or Rose Gethryn. They had been to an informational session the previous spring in which they were encouraged to talk in small groups with the teachers. Finally, they were included in preservice activities so that they were fully aware, if they wanted to be, of the IGE program. A decision for the Rural City elementary schools had been made long before any formal school-community contacts, However, a combination of the interpersonal contacts of a rural setting plus a great feeling of trust, particularly in Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn, also helped the program's acceptance.

Rosette and Cedar Crest Changeovers

One of the perhaps hidden items on the agenda of implementation of IGE in Rural City was that the neighborhood or rural school ties would be broken. How could it be hidden? As far as can be ascertained, no mention of breaking up the neighborhood patterns had been made prior to a series of public meetings in the spring of 1973, Mr. Svenson was concerned about the bus routes and knew that shifts were going to be made. However, the loss of rural school identity and the fact that children might have to bussed at some distance was never publicized during the initial stages of IGE implementation.

The new superintendent, Ted Abbott, had come in on the middle of IGE implementation at Elm Hollow but evidently was hired with the knowledge that the implementation for the whole district would continue rather systematically. In an August, 1972, board meeting, IGE was discussed and the understanding was reached that it would be implemented in Cedar Crest in 1973 if the Elm Hollow trial did not fail. Mr. Abbott knew that board members were behind the IGE program. He also knew that his predecessor, Dan Roridan, had done a sound job of laying the groundwork for IGE implementation. The fourth Rural City elementary school, located in the city itself, had been converted to a grades 5-8 quasi-middle school/junior high school when the city children started attending Elm Hollow in the fall of 1972.

The weekly newspaper also had continued its good coverage of the IGE program. In a February 15, 1973, article bylined by the newspaper's co-owner, a meeting was announced to be held in the Rosette Elementary School to discuss the fact that "Consideration is now being given to extending this system (IGE) through the third grade next year and to use it at Cedar Crest and Rosette as well." The article continues with a report of a visit to Elm Hollow and the favorable impressions obtained, particularly from the reading program.

A decision had been made by the superintendent, Mr. Svenson, and Miss Gethryn to break the schools up into two grades 1-3 units in Elm Hollow and Cedar Crest, and have all the fourth-graders go to Rosette. The basis for that decision was Mr. Svenson's and Miss Gethryn's feelings that this would best facilitate the WDRSD reading program.

The Rosette Vignette

According to Abbott, through informal contacts with influential people, "trial balloons" were put up in January, 1973, by Rod Schmelzer, the unofficial Rosette representative, and Sid Thomas, the board president at that time, about the bussing and reorganization. The Corner Bar in Rosette evidently is a particularly good place to bring up important topics with some Rosette residents. Mr. Svenson knew one of the Rosette influentials who could usually be found there, and through talking to him, got him to look favorably at the change, and this might have helped ease the idea of reorganization into the Rosette area.

Mr. Svenson, Miss Gethryn, and Mr. Abbott probably selected the Rosette attendance area as the first one to hold their informational meetings because they knew it would be the toughest. As discussed earlier, the implication is that several families in Rosette seem to have known each other in the Old Country and had come to the area on the work of the earlier pioneer families. The Rosette school and the Rosette Methodist Church served as anchors for the farming families. The community was very active and held its activities in the school. For example, the Rosette Mothers' Club held monthly meetings, often card parties, in the school; the teachers attended and shared information about the children's progress--almost a monthly report card conference. The high point of the Rosette social life was the annual spring picnic at which baseball games, etc., would be played while the women prepared the food. The day of the picnic coincided with the final day of school, and students were released at noon to participate in the picnic. Some of these activities, though not the picnic, have been continued since the Rosette children have been reorganized into the other two schools.

The Rosette school had been the recipient in the 1950s of a large sum of money donated by a former Rosette resident, Yancy Durham. Durham moved to New York and made his money in railroad stocks and upon his death set up a trust fund with the interest money available for the Rosette Elementary School Board of Education to spend as they saw fit. With the unification process in the 1950s the Rosette Board of Education was merged into the joint district, and the board of education took over management of the Durham Fund. The new board, however, does give the Rosette Mothers' Club some discretionary funds, usually in the vicinity of $1,000, to spend for the school each year. In addition, any money spent out of the Durham Fund--and it might involve $8000 to $9000 per year--was spent on improvements to the Rosette school. Critics in Rosette maintained that the improvements usually stayed there for one year then were redistributed to other schools, thus using the Durham Fund and Rosette school as a pipeline for new materials for the school district. However, the breakdown of the Rosette social center probably formed the emotional backdrop for the criticisms heard at the February 15, 1973, meeting.

Mr. Abbott opened the meeting and made a few general remarks, followed by Mr. Svenson. Miss Gethryn was there, as well as Bobbie Marco, the unit leader from Elm Hollow, to round out the official school ambassadors. There were also some unofficial ambassadors there that night. Three or four sets of Elm Hollow parents attended the Rosette meeting. These parents happened to include the president of the school board and also the Rural City mayor. The president of the school board evidently spoke out as a satisfied parent when asked a question in the meeting. Mr. Svenson and Mr. Abbott gave their perspectives of the IGE program. Miss Gethryn has a favorite analogy which she uses with farming people, in which she compares the multiunit school to the one-room rural school, emphasizing how much more we know now in order to do a better job.

The informal tone of previous meetings was continued by having questions encouraged from the forty parents in attendance. There were two or three hotheads in the meeting who kept up a persistent barrage of unfriendly questions. One of the dissidents had received ammunition from his sister, a teacher who had a bad experience with IGE implementation in another city. Evidently the question and answer session broke off rather abruptly. For example, one woman asked Ted Abbott three times what the board of education vote had been on IGE implementation and the bussing reorganization without getting her question answered. Rod Schmelzer did not speak during the formal part of the meeting, but circulated during the coffee hour which followed and smoothed over the problem areas.

In retrospect, one of the Rosette teachers summed up the meeting by saying, "The fact that Mr. Schmelzer was in favor of it and talked about it to them informally probably swayed most of the people." None of the dissidents harbored any ill feelings toward Schmelzer. None of them felt that he had sold out to the city, or had misrepresented their interests. No thought was given to running someone against Schmelzer in the next board election. However, there seems to have been a unanimous feeling that the school representatives came to the Rosette meeting not to discuss the consideration of implementing IGE as the newspaper had suggested, but rather that the decision had already been made and they were there to inform them of the decision.

Informational meetings were held following the Rosette meeting at Elm Hollow and Cedar Crest with little of the ballyhoo which accompanied the Rosette meeting. However, one of the dissidents from the Rosette meeting went to each of the other meetings to, in his words, "Make sure they were telling the same story."

The reorganization plan was to make Rosette a fourth-grade center, closing down one of the four classrooms there. Elm Hollow and Cedar Crest would be grades 1-3 units. One of the teachers from Elm Hollow, Emily Drainard, would be going to Cedar Crest to be the unit leader. The bussing plan to make all of this work required that all youngsters be bussed into Rural City and then rebussed out to their proper school. Even the Rosette, Elm Hollow, or Cedar Crest children who were eventually attending their own neighborhood school had to first go into the city, then back out to the school. For some of the children who might have to cross the district to attend school, it meant a forty-five minute bus ride one way. However, as a result of the reorganization in the fall of 1973, Mr. Svenson was able to reduce the number of bus runs by one and save the board of education some money.

That fall, all elementary teachers went through three-day preservice sessions before school's opening, with particular emphasis on the Cedar Crest implementation of IGE. The new unit leader there had worked under Bobbie Marco for a year at Elm Hollow and felt comfortable with the IGE program. She had three other teachers with her as well as a paid aide. All of the fourth-graders were bussed to Rosette. The teachers there were encouraged, but with little substantive help, to work together, share, and get ready to implement an IGE program in the fall of 1974.

IGE Implementation Summary

A summary look at IGE adoption and implementation might be helpful at this point. The board of education hired Dan Roridan in July of 1971 with a vague mandate to shape up the elementary schools. IGE emerged as the leading alternative, primarily because of its umbrella-like inclusion of several popular innovations. Roridan persuaded the two key administrators, Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn, to back IGE, then got the key board members to view it with favor. All elementary teachers were brought into the picture through an inservice class. The elementary school with the weakest rural ties, Elm Hollow, was selected for earliest implementation, and the rural and city parents of children who will attend it were finally brought into the informational program. A unit leader was selected for that school who had the qualities of being highly visible in the community, a twenty-year teaching veteran, daughter of a Rural City elementary teacher before her, and most importantly, a bright, enthusiastic person. The first semester of IGE implementation went smoothly at Elm Hollow. Many influential parents seem to have ended up with their children attending Elm Hollow. The first semester was capped off by an Open House at which parents obviously seemed pleased with the operation. The new superintendent had some informational parent meetings in February, 1973, and Cedar Crest was implemented in the fall of 1973. Bus routing patterns meant that the neighborhood school concept was dead in Rural City.

Key actors in this scenario were Dan Roridan for his subtle orchestration and for pushing the right people toward IGE at the right time the first year; Norman Svenson and Rose Gethryn for their close community ties; Rod Schmelzer for his support of the educational innovation and his back-fence type of talking in Rosette; Ted Abbott for his determined effort during the second year of IGE implementation to carry through the implementation plan; and Bobbie Marco for her effective day-to-day management.

The success of IGE implementation in Rural City is a result of close interpersonal ties and trust in experienced administrators. Roridan kept the board members informed and involved by having key members visit IGE schools. Undoubtedly the board members served as informed persons with their constituents throughout the IGE implementation period. The local newspaper helped by publishing folksy, sympathetic articles. All of the public informational meetings stressed informal two-way communication with teachers and with Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn—people who were visible, veterans, and trusted in the community. If there was an IGE "sales pitch" it was that IGE would mean that all children could compete on an equal basis in the multi-aged setting. Interview respondents agreed that people accepted the IGE program first in Elm Hollow and one year later at Cedar Crest by the time of the November Open House. The parents interviewed stress the fact that their children were coming home happy, not confused, wanted to go back to school, and liked the IGE program. IGE was good for kids. There was obviously nothing fancy or slick, no movies shown or lectures given, just folksy two-way personal communication.

Rural City's Home-School-Community Relations Program and Activities

The home-school-community relations program, activities, and events are too numerous in Rural City to give more than a listing and short explanation. Figure 3-1 summarizes the activities on the next page. The first part of this discussion will describe several activities on-going at the school. Finally, problems met during implementation of IGE will be focused upon as a function of home school-community relations.

Conferencing/Book Week/Open House.—Parent conferences and a change in reporting practices were initiated by Bobbie Marco, the unit leader at Elm Hollow, and discussed with Mr. Svenson and Miss Gethryn. Ms. Marco felt that a better method was needed to focus in on individual children's progress in the WDRSD reading skills program. Now conferences are held at the end of nine weeks, usually at the end of October. At the conferences, parents are informed about Book Week, which is also Educationa Week. During Book or Education Week, parents come in for an hour in the morning, usually at 8:45 during reading skills instruction, and then go to the gym to order books for their children for future Christmas presents. Bobbie Marco initiated the Book Week practice; she says that she got the idea from a magazine.

Open House is a district-organized affair managed by the superintendent and the elementary principal. The schools are opened at night,

FIGURE 3.1

Elm Hollow

HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES

Activity	School	Responsibility
Report Card Change —Conferencing	Elm Hollow (1972)	Unit Leader
	Cedar Crest (1973)	Unit Leader
Open House	All	Superintendent/Principal
Book Week	All	Unit Leader
Open Door Policy (child observation)	Elm Hollow	Unit Leader
Holiday Programs	All	Music Teacher
Monthly Newsletter	Elm Hollow	Unit Leader/Aide
Positive News & Calls	Elm Hollow	Teacher/Aide
	Cedar Crest	
Community as Resource	All	Teacher
IGE Informational Meetings	All	Superintendent/Principal
Utilization of School Buildings	All	Elementary Principal
Kindergarten Mothers' Club		

each one on a different night. Parents attend to visit with teachers, view students' work, and generally get a feel for what's happening at school. This might be viewed as a joint parents' outing, since few husbands are free during the day to come to conferences or to Book Week.

Monthly Newsletter.—The monthly newsletter contains material writeen by students, dates of upcoming events, and a description of units of instruction which will be taught in the next month. The unit leader is responsible for the content of the newsletter with contributions from the unit teachers. The aide has the responsibility of putting the newsletter together.

Positive Cards and Notes.--Bobbie Marco at Elm Hollow initiated the idea of making "Happy Smiles" notes and sending a note home with the children to tell the parents about positive things involving the child at school. She wanted to extend the concept to a positive telephone call in 1973-1974. The idea was to have a policy in which every teacher had a commitment to make one positive call each week to a different parent. Ms. Marco related that the policy had not been as effective as was hoped. Teachers seemed to let the idea slip.

Issues

A key understanding central to the rural environment in the Rural City public schools is that controversial issues rarely surface. Once they do surface, they are treated interpersonally. For example, there seem to have been some hard feelings about the manner in which the Rosette IGE informational meetings were handled. However, no one seemed to question the Rosette board member's ultimate loyalty or planned to run against him.

Bussing

A group of concerns seem to cluster around the emotional attachment to the neighborhood or rural school unit, bussing, and reorganization. When individuals were asked if there were any issues in Rural City, bussing was mentioned more than any other item. The decision to bus children and reorganize the schools was made by Mr. Abbott, Mr. Svenson, and Miss Gethryn. They based their rationale on Svenson and Gethryn's supposition that a grades 1-3 unit would facilitate the WDRSD reading program. In the reorganization Rosette became the fourth-grade center and the repository for those teachers who had escaped or moved away from IGE in the previously implemented schools. An interesting feature of the Rural City bussing program is that teachers ride the buses out to the schools during the first week of classes so that the children can become familiar with getting on the correct bus. There never really was a resolution of the unhappiness over the bussing situation. School officials chose to tough out the criticisms. There was some initial feeling among town people that they didn't want their children to attend a rural school. However, that feeling has changed into a positive feeling toward the children's education in the country. The bussing issue was somewhat tied into IGE. It was claimed that through bussing the district would make better use of their school facilities. Also, IGE implementation precipitated or came at the same time as the bussing reorganization, There has certainly been a change in the attachment the community has to the rural school unit as the center of social life. This has been particularly true in Rosette. As has been mentioned before, the Rosette school had a very active Mothers' Club which served a primary function as a social release from the rigors of farming life. They also sponsored the Rosette annual picnic, which, like the Mothers' Club, is no longer an on-going activity. The school officials maintain that they still keep the school open for any group which wants to use the school for a meeting, game, etc. The Rosette school is still used as a community meeting place and hosts over ten different such activities, including a basketball team, snowmobile club, 4-H club, and so on.

General Lack of Understanding

Although not really an issue in its truest sense, there is some feeling among parents that they really don't understand what IGE is all about. In turn, they aren't all that happy with the new report card and the information that it provides. It probably didn't help to change report cards with each successive implementation of IGE, since it meant that a parent with a second-grader and a fourth-grader would be receiving two different elementary report cards. No policy changes were undertaken to come to grips with this vague uneasiness about a lack of understanding on the parents' part. However, unit leaders did feel that parents were able to express their concerns at parent conference time and get a better understanding of what the program and report card were all about.

Changes in Attitudes Among Teaching Staff

This concern is certainly not a generalizable issue. It was voiced chiefly by a few school board members. Their concern is that the teaching staff is changing in Rural City. Teachers seem to be less sensitive to community needs and norms. There seems to be less participation by staff members in community functions. Teachers seem to be less tangible or visible in the Rural City community. Many teachers live out of the district and drive some distance—a half-hour to an hour—to get to work. This concern is probably a sign of the times rather than a concrete issue generalizable to many people.

Summary

Rural City represents a community in which local norms are far more dominant than cosmopolitan norms. IGE was presented as a system which would allow kids to compete with those of their own ability rather than age—a throwback to the one-room school organization. Home-school-community relations in Rural City are centered around one-to-one communication. A slick media campaign would certainly not get very far at all. IGE was accepted by the community the first semester it was started mainly because the kids were happy and not confused. Controversial issues rarely surface in Rural City. When they do surface, they are handled interpersonally and quietly.

In contrast to Rural City, the Factional School-Community—Kennedy Elementary School—was an arena fraught with issues and conflicts. A format similar to the preceding case study will be followed. After discussion of the school district and the school-attendance area, the implementation of IGE will be described. A section on Kennedy Elementary School's home-school-community relations programs and activities will follow. The next section will deal with the second year of implementation history. Finally, a detailed analysis of issues and problems will be made.

Factional School-Community: Kennedy Elementary School*

Implementation of IGE at Kennedy Elementary School at College Town is a story which illustrates how a committed minority of parents and an extroverted principal can be instrumental in bringing innovation about at the local school level. Three parents initially approached the central office administrators about instructional plans for the new open/pod style elementary school which was built for three suburban south-side housing areas. The district called upon Rod Althoff, an energetic IGE principal in the district, to open the school. He did so, selecting an excellent, young, idealistic staff and continued with a variety of home-school-community programs and activities geared to communicate in the school affairs and get people involved.

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*A case study which peripherally draws upon the data presented here as Factional School-Community will be forthcoming as "Johnson is Our School" by William R. Miles, Case Six in James M. Lipham and Marvin J. Fruth, THE PRINCIPAL AND INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Reading, Mass., 1976.

Partly because of the physical separation of three housing areas the school served and also because of serious disagreements about academic versus social growth, some of the parents came to recognize a we/they confrontation which culminated in a "safety valve" bus to take children from Kennedy Elementary School back to a more traditional school the second year of operation.

All things considered, Kennedy Elementary School comes across as a truly exemplary school in effective home-school-community relations and parental involvement. Parents uniformly reported that their children were happier at school than they ever had been; they had to struggle to keep them home when they were ill.

Community and School District Background

The city of College Town is located on the Eastern slope of the Western Mountains. The city's population in 1974 is about 46,000 with a mixed racial composition—a few blacks, eleven percent Chicanos, but mostly a white population. The city's main attraction is the 17,000 student State University which is located near the center of the city. The university has grown a great deal in the last ten years. The city is not heavily industrialized, but does serve a substantial outlying rancher population.

One could best characterize the growth of the city by drawing concentric circles around the center city. In the center city, the downtown is mainly a cross-roads with the commonplace shopping areas etc. but accented by two new eight story office buildings. One circle out would include older homes on the North side and the major part of the university on the South side. Two circles out would start the suburban sprawl which has characterized so many cities. If you drive ten minutes from center city down one of the two main streets, College Avenue, south past the campus, you soon start to come into shopping centers, motels, and fast food places. The South side is the side of the city which has experienced rapid growth and development with the North side largely undeveloped, although there is some mixture of skilled laborers in the South side suburbs. Some people now live on the South side but drive to industrial sites in nearby towns. However, the population is largely made up of a professional class dominated by university employees.

Kennedy Elementary School Attendance Area

Kennedy Elementary School serves three separate housing areas on the South side. Kennedy School is located in Eagle Estates. One of its inhabitants characterized Eagle Estates as being "high quality" tract housing. The development was built seven years ago, with more units still being added today. One can see that it is a new area by the size of the trees lining the streets. Eagle Estates owners are characterized as being WASPs (White Anglo-Saxon, Protestants) in their mid-thirties, perhaps assistant professors and other professionals at the university. Homes in Eagle Estates are currently (Spring, 1974) selling in the $30-43,000 range. There are only open spaces next to Eagle Estates. The next tract housing area is about one-half mile down the road. That area now sends its children to Kennedy only on an annual basis. If enrollments go beyond building capacity, children from that area will be the first to go to another school.

The second area which is served by Kennedy Elementary School is Golf Acres, which is located about two miles south-east of Eagle Estates. Houses in Golf Acres are currently selling for $40,000 and up. The ethnic makeup of the population is about the same as Eagle Estates. However, the area is characterized as being a more upper middle class, if Eagle Estates is lower middle class. One might find full professors and other professional people living in Golf Acres, definitely a more affluent set of homeowners. They are more likely to have older children as well as younger ones in school.

The third area served by Kennedy School is Equine Heights. It is located on a hill about three miles southwest of Eagle Estates. Compared to the other attendance areas, the lots are larger at Equine Heights, and many people who live there also have their horses and dogs on their property. The homes are approximately the same caliber, and prices range around $35-55,000 (Spring, 1974). The attraction in Equine Heights is clearly to be able to have a large lot. The lots in Equine Heights are all separated by fences. The ethnic makeup is still the same, predominantly WASPish with little if any minority representation.

School District History

In 1959, the city of College Town school district reorganized into the Ramosa J-3 school district. While today there are 46,000 residents of College Town proper, Ramosa J-3 serves 70,000 inhabitants. In the last ten years, the school population has gone from 6,500 to 15,000 students. They have three high schools now with five junior high schools, and seventeen elementary schools, four of which are one-room mountain schools. A seven-member school board serves Ramosa J-3. They are elected for four year terms, two or three running every two years. Members run from and represent areas of Ramosa J-3 but are elected by the total vote at large. Because board members have an area representation, they are called directors of one particular area. The district as a whole does not seem to be a high conflict one. In the 1973 board election, two candidates were elected without opposition, and one other incumbent had two Chicano opponents but handily defeated them.

Mr. Alan Trayne has been superintendent of schools since 1971, replacing a man who had held the superintendency the previous nine years. Trayne had worked his way up in the district with one year as a teacher, junior high principal, then through the central office, formerly holding the presonnel director's position for five years, then assistant superintendent for administrative services for four years before becoming superintendent. One of the key figures in the central office, as far as IGE goes, is the assistant superintendent for curriculum, Pat Douglas. Douglas, a resident for 21 years, had taught two years, been a counselor for two years, and a principal for five years before coming into the central office. According to Douglas, Ramosa J-3 was interested in continuous progress schooling ten years ago—something they called "dynamic education." Douglas is currently leading Ramosa J-3 efforts towards anticipating the state's accountability bill. Accountability is evidently something Ramosa J-3 has been a state leader in for the last few years.

IGE Implementation

The initiation of the IGE instructional program concept in Ramosa J-3 occurred in 1969 when /I/D/E/A/ and the State Department of Education sponsored IGE awareness conferences in the state. Wayne George, then assistant superintendent for elementary schools, took three principals to an IGE awareness conference in the capital city. Rod Althoff was one of those three principals. Althoff went on to implement the IGE program at Eisenhower Elementary School in 1970. Canyon Elementary School also implemented the program later. Since the south side of the city was experiencing the greatest growth, plans were laid as early as 1968 for an elementary school to be built out in the suburban area. In 1968, Ramosa J-3 passed a major bond issue for future building. According to one long-time board member, the district had considered the varieties of building policies, from campus schools to neighborhood schools. They finally made a definite commitment to a neighborhood school concept for the district in 1968. The open pod style school concept was presented initially on the basis that it would be cheaper to build. Kennedy Elementary School was being built in 1970-71 and was scheduled to be opened in the fall, 1972.

Early Parental Interest

In November, 1971, a group of concerned parents met at the central administration building with Tom Forrest, the new assistant superintendnet for elementary schools. Those parents included: Sherry Rikopos, Joan Benedict, and Ben Truman. It is more than a haphazard occurrence that these three individuals would serve as the first of the committed minority at Kennedy Elementary School. They all teach or have husbands who teach at the university. The Trumans and Rikopos at that time lived such that they shared a backyard, and Joan Benedict lived across the street. Sherry Rikopos served as the original organizer and maintains that she made several calls to get people concerned about the building of the new school, but only the three of them met with Mr. Forrest in November. As Mrs. Rikopos said, "If there hadn't been a minority in favor, the whole system would have broken down." They talked to Forrest about the need for an alternative mode of education in the new open style school. Mr. Forrest recommended that they visit Eisenhower Elementary School, the IGE elementary school where Rod Althoff was principal. Subsequently, Mrs. Rikopos rounded up about eight parents and visited Eisenhower Elementary School. They were very impressed, both with the instructional program and with the principal, Rod Althoff.

Principal Selection

Superintendent Alan Trayne asked Rod Althoff in to take the Kennedy Elementary School principalship. Trayne maintains that parental interest in Althoff and his final selection were coincidental. Althoff was surprised that Trayne called and offered the job because, at that time, he did not get along particularly well with the superintendent.

The relationship between Trayne and Althoff deserves a close scrutiny. As personnel director, Trayne originally hired Althoff as a teacher in the early 1960's. Althoff taught in the Doty Elementary School where Trayne's mother-in-law was principal. It was on Trayne's recommendation, along with others, that Althoff got the Doty School principalship. When that selection was made known Althoff, as a teacher, had jumped over four assistant elementary principals in the district, and this caused some hard feeling among those people. Later, Althoff had been handpicked to open up the pod/open space Eisenhower Elementary School. Trayne later related, "Rod was great at opening new buildings. The open space concept was a revolution in Ramosa J-3, and Rod favored the concept."

Rod Althoff had been the key figure at the school level in bringing IGE into the College Town system. He had been on a differentiated teaching staff (hereafter DTS) committee which the central office had been suggesting. As a matter of fact, the central office earmarked inservice monies for DTS implementation which Althoff had obtained for Eisenhower School when they went into the IGE program in 1970. Rod is in his middle thirties and a native to College Town. After graduating from college, he had taught in another state for one year and then returned to his home state, first moving to Neely and then to College Town to teach and eventually entered administration. As mentioned earlier, he taught at Doty School and became principal there in 1964. He opened Eisenhower Elementary in 1968. Althoff is clearly admired as one who could get things done, a motivator of co-workers. His energy and stature as a principal got him elected president of the state's elementary principals association in 1972. His style, however, is very low key. In retrospect, the challenge of Kennedy Elementary School may have proven a burden to his private life, In the past two years, he has been divorced and suffered a three months illness,

Kennedy Elementary School Implementation

What kind of commitment did Rod have from the central office for IGE implementation at Kennedy? Although the school was being built by early 1972, the superintendent involved Althoff in the later stages of the building planning. He made changes in the pod style design so that another pod could be adjoined, if future enrollment needs predicted it.

Mr. Althoff had a free hand in staffing the school, but could only take four staff members with him from Eisenhower School. By March, 1972, he had most of his staff selected and had a meeting with them at the administration building. In April, they took a vote on whether or not to become an IGE school. The result was almost a foregone conclusion; IGE won handily. At that time, they also voted on selecting the unit leaders. The newly elected unit leaders went to an IGE Principal and Unit Leader Workshop in May. The staff met informally through that spring, pointing to a presentation to the parents in June, 1972. Kennedy Elementary School had a great amount of staff cohesiveness, their first year in particular. The staff adopted a nickname--the Kennedy Klan--which became a total school-community means of group identification.

The parents were formally notified of the June meeting for Kennedy parents by a letter from the Kennedy staff. At the June, 1972 large group meeting, they showed the IGE film "One At A Time Together", and the Kennedy teachers put on a skit which attempted to show what the staff had in mind for the new school. Both the film and the skit got bad reviews from the parental interviews. Parents thought the film was propagandistic, and the skit was childish. They did follow up the program with a coffee hour. Attendance was good at the June, 1972 informational meeting with perhaps three hundred in attendance.

Regarding the parental opinion concerning the future role of Rod Althoff and the Kennedy School, there was a minority of parents in the attendance area who favored "open style" education. Several of the parents interviewed said that they knew that Kennedy would be an IGE school when Althoff was announced as the new principal. They assumed, as did the staff, that he would bring an IGE program into the new school. There seems to have been a minority in favor of IGE, a majority skeptical or indifferent—seeking more information—and another minority at the other end who were not in favor the new program.

The new Kennedy staff met informally during the summer without pay. In August, just prior to school's opening, the teachers met for one week with no pay, but did receive a free lunch each day from the district. They used the district's staff pscyhologist in planning various human relations techniques to bring the staff together.

Fall, 1972: First Year of IGE at Kennedy

Everyone interviewed agreed that Kennedy's first year as an IGE school was a rocky one. Even opening day of school was a problem. School couldn't begin on opening day because it was not quite finished. They did open up the next day, however.

One reason for the first year troubles was serious overcrowding. The school had been staffed for 350 students in mind, but by Christmas they had 480 enrolled. Organizationally, they had planned for and staffed two units, each to have approximately 150-175 children. By Christmas, each of the two units had well over 200 children.

In September, 1972, Mr. Althoff formed a parental steering committee to help guide school policy by sending a letter home announcing an organizational meeting. Several of the "open education" minority leaders mentioned earlier were involved on the parental steering committee--the Trumans, the Rikopos, the Antoinettes, and the Karys. The steering committee reported to a large group session in October 1972, on different parental organizational arrangements, PTA, PTO, etc. The group voted to have a PTO, and a Parent Advisory Board (PAB). Leaders were also selected that night.

During September and October, 1972, each unit had a series of parent/unit meetings which were designed as small group informational sessions. The idea for parent/unit meetings evidently came from Mr. Althoff and the IIC. These meetings were well received by most parents and were held on different nights so that all parents could get a chance to attend. However, one parent voiced what might be a pointed bit of criticism when he said of the parent/unit meetings, "They promised us too much, especially the Outlook and Mariner Units."

One parent, who later pulled his child out of Kennedy but actually lives right next to the school, feels that he wasn't given a chance to be represented in the parent/unit meetings. He related that members of the PAB were assigned to small groups and later represented the small group in reporting their discussion to the larger parent/unit group.

This individual later said, "We got the general impression that we weren't wanted by the PAB group."

A recognition of a possible conflict between parents involving a we and they dichotomy also showed up in the selection of leaders for the PAB and PTO in the fall, 1972. According to Sherry Rikopos, many people were on the ballot for the PTO and PAB. However, it was people from the committed minority like the Trumans who got involved in leadership roles that year because, as they later said, "We heard that there were anti-IGE people and we (Trumans) decided to get involved."

Report Card Change

Althoff announced to the parental steering committee at the September organizational meeting that a top priority that fall was to consider a choice among three alternatives: 1) the district's regular report card, 2) an alternative recently developed by a district report card committee, or 3) some other alternative. The committee crystallized its report in October, 1972. Their result was a long form of check style report card with written comments. It was to be reinforced by parent-teacher conferences on Thursday afternoons. There would be no school for children on Thursday afternoon.

Air Force Major Donald White was given the task of explaining to the ongoing parent/unit meetings the need for the new reporting system. Parents later recalled that straw votes were taken at the parent/unit meetings on the conferencing/Thursday afternoon off proposed policy. In the Mariner unit, there was about a two to one approval ratio. In the Outlook unit, a parent reported that the policy passed on a seventy-five to five straw vote.

However, negative phone calls during October to the Ramesa J-3 central office resulted in the assistant superintendent for elementary schools, Tom Forrest, requesting Kennedy to demonstrate parental support for the conferencing. plan. Observers still are not able to analyze the source of the negative phone calls. As one central office administrator stated, it may have been a few people making several calls, or a genuine expression of negative feeling on the part of many. The negativism was mostly directed at the Thursday afternoon for conferencing. The Kennedy parental steering committee had two large meetings in October and set up a telephone network. A ballot was mailed home on November 10, 1972 asking how many were in favor of the report card/Thursday afternoon conferencing. Of those returned, 84% said they were in favor of the proposed change. The survey had 285 ballots mailed, 242 returned, 84% in favor, 14% against, 2% no reply). Once the report card/conferencing got going in December, 1972, there were few if any problems. It also helped that in January, 1973 the city recreation department put on a program for children at Kennedy School on Thursday afternoon. This program served as a baby-sitting service for those inconvenienced by having their children come home early on Thursday. Approximately 75 to 100 children participate in the recreation department program. Scouts' meetings now are also held on Thursday afternoons.

Overcrowding/Boundary Dispute

Several problems which surfaced the first year of IGE implementation at Kennedy were caused by the fact that the school had more children than were planned. They opened with thirteen teachers in two units and staffed for no more than three hundred and fifty children; they were planning on a pupil to teacher ratio of twenty-five children for each teacher. The school building population by Christmas, 1972 was at four hundred and eighty-four.

A first solution to the problem of overcrowding was to get more staff. Special unit teachers (music, physical education, and art and the IMC director) had been placed into the units as regular teachers that fall to shore up the work load. Mr. Althoff initiated contact with Mr. Forrest about the need for more staffing. At the same time, a study was conducted through the teachers association which showed that Kennedy had the next to highest pupil/teacher ratio in the district. Forrest was at first negative about the possibilities for more staffing for Kennedy. However, he consented to come to a meeting called by the PAB, just prior to Christmas, 1972. The topic on the agenda was supposed to be the need for a new pod on the building. The discussion quickly changed, however, to the need for more staff. As Forrest said later about the meeting, "The PAB, yeah, they gave me hell that night." The district's fiscal year begins in January, and Forrest was able to deliver one and a half more staff people in January to help alleviate the overcrowded situation. The special unit teachers were removed from their regular teaching duties and returned to their specialties.

Another part of the overcrowding issue was the school's boundaries. The school was originally planned to include distinct and existing housing areas which existed or were planned in 1968. In just a short period of time, however, a development had gone up just a half-mile from Eagle Estates where the school is located. In addition, the district experienced a shift in school population with more and more people moving to the popular south side suburban area. The district's population projections had shown no net increases projected for the next few school years. However, a considerable amount of shifting seemed to be occurring.

A PAB and PTO joint boundary committee worked jointly from January to June to resolve the boundary questions. They were led by Bob Antoinette, who besides being a Kennedy parent is a sociologist who had an academic interest in the controversy. Virtually everyone gave Antoinette credit for engineering the agreements through the three attendance areas and in the negotiations with the central office administrators.

The joint committee met with Marvin Dudley, the administrative assistant to the superintendent in January, 1973, and Dudley asked that Althoff and the committee supply him with the data which indicated their analysis of the situation, the origins of the overcrowding and recommendations for alleviation. Part of the strategy employed by Antoinette and the joint committee was to use a parental survey to demonstrate support for Kennedy and the IGE program. In a survey sent home with the children, 93% of those returned said that they favored retaining their child in the school with the IGE program. Seven percent said they favored taking their child out. The actual survey was worded and reported as such:

All things being equal, I would prefer sending my child(ren) to what school next year?

Responses

N	%	School
139	93	Kennedy
10	07	To a more traditional school
149	100%	(total returned 149, a return rate of 51%, 294 families attending Kennedy)

Antoinette engineered the gathering of the enrollment projections not only for Kennedy but for neighboring southside schools which might be affected. The PAB spent much of its agenda in its scheduled monthly meetings from January to March discussing alternative solutions to the problem. At one crucial meeting, one woman came with sweatshirts from six different elementary schools her children had attended, even though she had lived in the same spot.

Besides holding informational meetings, Antoinette and his committee designated key people in each of the three parts of the attendance areas for what he called "power play actions" at key points in the debate.

Dissension developed between parents in the three attendance areas about who the school was really built for. One petition with one hundred names was circulated by an Eagle Estates parent who wanted to exclude Golf Acres and Equine Heights children so that Eagle Estates children would be given first chance to go to Kennedy, since the school was located in Eagle Estates. There was also a rumor of a petition which circulated in Equine Heights. Although the petitions were carried to a board meeting, they were not given any weight in decision-making. Board members acceded to the Antoinettes as parental spokesmen.

In a series of detailed memos distributed among administrators, all of the possible variations on moving boundaries, freezing enrollments, and building on to Kennedy's existing structure were explored. A confounding element in the situation was that Rimrock Elementary School, a "sister" school nearby to Kennedy also had its overenrollment problem and subsequent boundary problems which had to be dealt with. The central office in-house agreement seemed to center on slight variations of boundaries, while the Kennedy PAB wanted to build a pod on to the existing structure.

In retrospect, Principal Althoff may have made a tactical error in the resolution of the issue. Early in the final phase, Althoff made a detailed report with recommendations to Dudley as he had been directed. Later reports and recommendations came from the school signed as the "Kennedy PAB" and Antoinette was the real force behind those. However, the central office administrators felt that Althoff was doing some political maneuvering to get his objectives--a new pod built on--and using the PAB as a front. This proposition was hotly denied by the PAB leaders, however.

All of the options came to the floor of a board of education work session where the effected PABs were invited. The resolution of the boundary dispte was an agreement that those children who started in the Kennedy program could finish, no matter what. Also, bus transportation would be provided beginning in the fall, 1973, for those children who might want to be trasported from the Kennedy attendance area back to the more traditional Dudgen Elementary School, known as a traditional school. The superintendent, Alan Trayne, is given credit for the busing idea, and observers feel that it more or less materialized on the spot. Trayne later explained that the bus could provide those people who were unhappy about the direction of the school an honorable out as well as handle the overcrowding problem. Another part of the issue resolution was that a school district administrator now sits with the local county planning committee to help with long-range planning.

Feelings of the parents, teachers and children regarding IGE implementation at Kennedy were captured in a PTO sponsored survey conducted in April and May, 1973. The survey had four areas. They are: 1) Achievement--parental concern was not reported regarding achievement; 2) Student Attitudes--Kennedy students seem to have positive attitudes towards themselves and towards school. Parents expressed concern over the noise level in the school and the confusion of the open setting which was to be remedied by going to four units and placing dividers in the pods, to be discussed later; 3) Staff Attitude--Kennedy teachers reported positive, confident attitudes about their teaching situations; 4) Parent Attitude--parents were reported to be most concerned about their child's performance. Fifty-four percent of those who returned the questionnaire had visited school more than twice. Their exact tabulations were recorded as such:

21%	A more traditional school would be better.
9%	All schools were essentially the same.
70%	IGE was the better teaching method.

164 questionnaires returned, return rate 60%, 42 families interviewed in addition to the mailed questionnaire.

Kennedy Elementary School Implementation Summary

Before looking at Kennedy's specific programs and activities, it might be useful to look at IGE implementation in retrospect. College Town had a history of interest in continuous progress schooling and differentiated staffing which coalesced into an IGE program at Eisenhower School with Rod Althoff as principal. When Althoff was selected to open Kennedy, he hired a young, committed, perhaps idealistic staff, which in turn worked with a few members of the community to bring the IGE concept across. School opened in a turmoil, and they had an excess of perhaps fifty percent more children than they were staffed for. The overcrowding and boundary issue problems were later resolved in a series of strategy sessions bringing together all groups in the home-school-community environment. Kennedy Elementary School's home-school-community programs and activities will be discussed before turning to the second year of operation. Figure 3-2 highlights the school's home-school-community relations programs and activities.

FIGURE 3-2

KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL'S HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES

Activity	Responsibility
Parent Advisory Board	Principal
PTO	Principal
Coffee with the Principal	Principal
Slide Presentation	Principal
Parent/Visitor Procedures	Principal
Parent Volunteers	Unit Leaders
Unit Meetings with Parents	IIC
Weekly Conferences/Reporting	Unit Members
"Good Time" Notes to Parents	Happiness Unit Leader
Choir	Music Teachers
Spring and Christmas Programs	Special Area Unit Leader
Sports Program	Physical Education Teacher
Special's Unit Potpourri	Sepcial Area Unit Leader
Monthly Newsletter	PTO Volunteer
Kindergarten Newsletter	Kindergarten Staff

Home-School-Community Programs and Activities

There are some fifteen different home-school-community relations programs and activities to discuss at Kennedy Elementary School. They will be broken down into two different categories, those that are school related and those that are unit related. It is noteworthy that most of the programs and activities stress a great deal of involvement, two-way communication, and small group interaction.

Parent Advisory Board.--The Parent Advisory Board (hereafter PAB) was mandated by board of education policy. The superintendent, Alan Trayne, had brought the PAB idea in with him in 1971 as a "mini" board of education—to act as a means of communication and buffer between the central administration and the parents. Each school was required to have a PAB, and there is a district PAB which serves in an advisory role to the Board of Education. In 1974, the newest member on the Board of Education was the former president of the district PAB. He may set a precedent for a new route of recruitment to the school board.

PABs, district-wide, now have become effective pressure groups for certain schools. For example, they caused one teacher to be fired at Dudgen School last year. Kennedy's PAB certainly served as a pressure group at certain times. Moreover, the history of the PAB in Ramosa J-3 is not a smooth one. Several principals saw the PAB as a threatening element when they first started. Also the PAB offered dissidents in the community, "kooks" as the superintendent called them, an opportunity to gain a soapbox they might not have and misdirect parental opinions. However, the general impression at the district level was that the PABs overall were an effective force for education in the district.

How was Kennedy Elementary School's PAB formed? Principal Althoff had sent out an introductory letter to all families in September, 1972 outlining his concerns for a need to organize parental involvement. He announced a September meeting date for all interested to attend. At that September meeting, a parental steering committee was formed to look into parental organization forms. They also formed a sub-committee to analyze the report card situation, as mentioned above. That steering committee came back in October at a large group meeting with interested parents and offered alternatives for organizing. The PAB was formed that night along with the PTO, and leaders were also selected.

What is the composition, of the PAB? There are eleven members on the committee: nine elected, the principal, and one member of the PTO. The nine elected PAB members are selected from the attendance areas, three from each. They meet monthly on Tuesday night at school. Either the principal or the president of the PAB can call a special meeting.

What is the mandate of the PAB? They are the parental body given the task of assisting with school policy. As will be discussed later, the PTO is largely a social/fund raising organization. The PAB leadership comes mainly from a committed minority of parents who were eager for a different type of educational arrangement back in 1972. For example, last year Bob Antoinette was an instrumental force on the PAB in getting the boundary dispute resolved. Sherry Rikopos is chairman this year; the Ben Trumans have been members both in the 1972-73 school year and 1973-74 as well.

The PAB at Kennedy has served an overall goal of advising on school policy and serving as a mini-board of education. It is capable of playing an advocate's role before the Board of Education, and it can also muster brain-power and committee power, largely university based, on a given topic.

Coffee With the Principal.--Principal Althoff started the idea of going out to homes to have coffee in the morning with interested parents when he was principal at Eisenhower School. According to Tom Forrest, the assistant superintendent for elementary schools, there may be four elementary principals going out for coffee now, but Mr. Althoff has clearly been the most successful. Although Althoff had used the coffee idea before at Eisenhower, it was certainly among the range of school-community activities planned by the staff and the IIC in the spring, 1972.

During the first year--1972-73--Mr. Althoff ran the coffees at school. He would ask ten or twelve parents to come in on a Thursday morning around nine o'clock, have coffee and discuss school-wide concerns, problems, etc. in that small group setting for an hour, then let the parents in effect go to school the rest of the morning with their children. The parents were then invitied to stay and have lunch with their children and then take them home, since children were dismissed at 1:00 on Thursday afternoon for conferencing.

The second year, 1973-74, there have only been two coffees up until Easter because of Althoff's illness. However, this year he has attempted to hold the coffees out in the homes, rather than bringing the people to the school. The principal identifies the homes, sets a schedule, then announces it in the monthly newsletter.

What is the net effect of the coffee/discussion program? That first year it definitely allowed curious mothers an opportunity to get a "hands on" kind of feeling about what was going on in school. It created a cadre of mothers who had been in school to serve as rumor squelchers because they had actually been in school and could report the facts. It also served as a discussion session for those who might have questions about programs or policies. As more parents become satisfied, it might lose its effectiveness as a change orientor. Some of the staff feel that the discussion topics are too general, and that the sessions are probably ineffective, if not an inefficient use of time.

PTO.—Ramosa J-3 has all the varieties of PTAs, PTOs, and some schools with no parental organizations. The steering committee formed in September, 1972 and reported three options at an October, 1972 large group meeting. Option number one was to go the PTA route with the national affiliation and so on. Option number two was to be a PTO, essentially a parent-teacher organization without national affiliation. Option three was to form some alternative, lesser organized group. The large group session voted in October, 1972 to become a PTO; officers were elected that night. The PTO's first president was Herb and Mary Kary, one of the activists for change mentioned above. Nominees for PTO offices that night had to stand and give a short speech on why they wanted the office, what they would do, how they would involve others. The leadership of the PTO the last two years, as well as the PAB, seems dominated by university based people.

In 1973-74, the PTO was issue oriented. Their focus was to educate and communicate with the parents. According to Bob Antoinette, "they were not going to be a fund raising group." They, with the PAB, seem to have generated the leadership for the boundary dispute last year. They also have joined forces with the PAB in 1973-74 in investigating the year-round school concept. There is some criticism that the initial enthusiasm has worn off in the PTO, and that it has denigrated into a typical social/fund-raising group.

What activities/programs are the PTO specifically associated with? They run the father/son and mother/daughter nights. These seem to be highly successful. In the spring of 1974, they had 250 people out to the father/son night. The PTO runs a spring carnival, the proceeds of which go to the schoool. Last year's carnival netted $1100 which will be used for playground equipment. They also are in charge of the annual "Back to School Night" held in the fall. The PTO sells sweatshirts which have the elementary school name on them. The idea certainly has the possibility of building school loyalty.

Year-Round School Committees.—Interest in the year-round school was located in several different elementary schools in the district. The central office had encouraged several visits to other year-round schools, with the superintendent going with the Kennedy Committee on at least one occasion. One school, Dudgen Elementary School, had tried to implement the year-round school in 1973-74 but had met with too much parental and teacher opposition.

The year-round school committee was formed out of a joint effort by the PTO and the PAB; they did it jointly so that either side would not feel that possible territory was being encroached upon. Principal Althoff seems to have little direct input to the committee.

Parent Volunteers.--The idea for parent volunteers was initiated through the PTO last year. It is a planned activity coordinated by the unit leaders and the PTO. The program was started because as one person put it, "People wanted to learn about IGE."

Volunteers are designated by having all parents fill out a "Kennedy Klan Volunteer" card when they register their child. The information is organized by the PTO, and groups are formed by what the parents indicated their chief interests and skills were. Approximately fifty parents come to school on a regular basis, others come only when called for a specific purpose.

Is the volunteer aide program an effective one? It probably allowed skeptical mothers that first year an opportunity to see what was happening in school. However, there was some criticism from the parents that they spent too much time paper checking. That criticism led to the question "What do the teachers do?" This year, the volunteers have been provided some inservice training with more specific tasks to do. There may be more positive feelings towards the volunteer aide program this year, as one volunteer put it, "They make you feel needed." It should be noted that one of the volunteers was a 70 years plus retired school teacher. Ruth came to give, as one observer put it, "a lot of love, care and affection." Her volunteering in the school received a very favorable newspaper account this past spring.

Monthly Newsletter.—The monthly newsletter is a planned activity related to IGE. The staff and the PTO coordinate their efforts through a PTO Board member, Mrs. Andrea Mape, to put the newsletter out once a month. Mrs. Mape comes to the staff for possible material—nothing has ever been rejected yet. The PTO committee types the paper, edits it, and distributes it to all the school's parents. It should be noted that the central office also helps by printing it on their machines on district paper, though it is charged to the school's account.

The newsletter serves to chronicle some past meetings and events. It helps alert parents to future meetings and vacations. It also gives the principal a chance to communicate with a larger audience about some of his concerns and possible future issues.

Choir.—Kennedy Elementary School has an excellent choir. The source of initiation for the idea is probably a combination of the musical talents of the school's principal, and a talented young, energetic vocal music teacher. The vocal music teacher is responsible for getting the choir organized each year. Approximately 100-150 try out for the choir, from which they will select forty. Parents bring their children to school early each day of practice for thirty minutes (8:00-8:30) of rehearsal time. The choir has sung at many different places—at the college, at the shopping mall, Kiwanis, the country club, etc., and many of the parents of the children involved get out to see the choir perform as well. The choir serves as a visible, tangible public relations vehicle for the community at large. The Kennedy choir is an identified group out in the community with good, healthy connotations.

Spring and Christmas Programs.--The special area teachers (art, vocal music, learning center teacher, counselor, and physical education) compose a special unit and meet with each different I and R unit for planning. They coordinate the efforts for a spring and Christmas program for the parents. Turnout at these programs is great. Observers reported that approximately 350-400 parents attended the Christmas program in 1973. This again is a tangible, visible part of an effective home-school-community relations program.

Kennedy Sports Program.--The sports program is something brand new and was just getting off the ground in 1974. The purpose is to give awards for personal athletic achievement, not competition, similar to the President's Physical Fitness Program. They were using a very visible wall chart to publicize the program to the children. Parents were to be involved in the overall goal setting for the children.

Slide Presentation.--The principal and the learning center director put together in 1974 a slide presentation on the history, organization, purposes, etc. of Kennedy School. It is to be used at parent coffees, PTO, general meetings, etc. The slides are set to a student-made narrative. Central Office audio-visual technicians have assisted in the slide presentation development. The slide presentation is an interesting historical development which should help give strangers a better orientation towards Kennedy School.

Parent/Visitor Procedures.--Kennedy Elementary School receives a great number of visitors. It is a matter of policy that the door is open to parents at all times. As a successful open pod style IGE school, Kennedy attracts many educators to the school who might want to evaluate the program on a first hand basis, For those reasons, visitors' name tags are color coded so that the staff knows what "type" of visitor is in the school. Different color codes are given to parents, visiting teachers, aides, etc. Student hosts and hostesses conduct the visitors around the school.

Unit Meetings with Parents.—The IIC first initiated the idea of having parents come in by units for meetings. The unit leader coordinates each parent/unit meeting with the unit. The principal is responsible for overall coordination, but there is no effort to create a "sameness" among the units. For the fall, 1972, each unit was given the responsibility to develop a set of activities for the parents in their unit. The parent/unit meetings were held on different nights so that parents could attend the unit's meeting for each unit they might have children in. The first year the meetings held in September were informational—they broke into small groups for questions and answers. Each unit had a follow-up meeting in October. The purpose in 1973-74 was to discuss "what we are doing in the unit," and in the Hilltop Unit was run as a question and answer session in the entire unit with experienced and non-experienced IGE parents together. The Exit Unit had five different parents at a time twice each Thursday last fall, The sessions lasted for half an hour and discussion centered on how the parents could help out, whatever questions the parents had, etc, This program continued for five weeks and was done with only the six year olds' parents—those supposedly new to IGE, After this five week program, the unit started in with their regular conferencing. Response to the parent/unit meetings has been very good. However, there has only been one type of meeting in 1974, and the recommendation is that more should be planned.

Weekly Conferences/Report Cards.—A district report card committee had reported in fall, 1972 that schools could have three options for reporting. They could stay with the traditional report card; they could use one developed by the committee; or they could strike out on their own. As reported earlier, a Kennedy Steering Committee subcommittee suggested a long check sheet with written comments to be reinforced by periodic conferences. Tom Forrest had promoted the conferencing at the central office level, but only Eisenhower and Kennedy among the seventeen elementary schools had been able to convince parents of its efficacy.

The unit leader and unit staff are responsible for the conferencing with the unit leader serving as the overall coordinator. Each unit conducts its conferences according to its own preference. They all, however, send home a pre-conference form two weeks prior to help plan the conference content. Conferences vary in form from one unit to another. The Hilltop Unit, for example, has all the unit members conference with the parent. The Explorer Unit assigns an advisor to each child, and that advisor plus the content specialist which the parent has requested to see will be involved in the conference. Seemingly all the parents participate in the weekly conferencing program and have high regard for the program. There are some feelings among staff, however, that it is proving to be quite a burden.

Special's Unit "Potpourri."--This activity is coordinated by the special's unit team leader. Every six weeks, the four members of the special's unit take an entire unit and divide it up into four groups (one per special teacher). Each teacher has special skills and does various activities. Sometimes they perform for the children or bring the children in their section into a skit which that group performs for the entire unit. Many times the children from the deaf education center are also involved. Parents are not invited to these special's unit sessions, but the several who called and asked to attend were allowed.

"Good Time" Notes to Parents.--The Happiness Unit periodically sends home a note which concerns a positive action or situation which the particular child has been involved in. The aide helps in the bookwork involved.

Kindergarten Newsletter.--The kindergarten staff is responsible and coordinates a newsletter which goes out monthly to the kindergarten students' parents only.

School Year 1973-1974: Kennedy's Second Year

Prior to school's opening in the fall, 1973, the IIC had made some decisions for a reorganization of units and a building of barriers in the pods. School had opened in 1973 with two units staffed to handle 350 children. The IIC decided to re-organize the two regular instructional units into four units with a fifth special teachers unit made up of the IMC director, physical education, music, and art teachers. Each unit had approximately four to six staff members including the unit leader.

The IIC had also decided to build barriers in the pods. The pods were designed along a Y configuration with the base of the Y being the hall going into that area. The barriers were erected at the apex of the Y so that the noise and more privacy could be insured to each unit in their separate pods. The PTO helped fund the building of the barriers by supplying the lumber. When staff members were asked if they responded to direct parental pressure regarding the barriers, they denied it, maintaining that the teachers had made the decision to build the pods independent of any parental pressure of any type. However, the PTO sponsored survey indicated that this may not exactly be the case.

Kennedy's first school year, 1972-73 had been a rocky one, fraught with developmental types of concerns and issues. Its second year went more smoothly according to all accounts, particularly regarding the instructional program. There were some disgruntled parents, however, who made use of the one-way bus from Kennedy to Dudgen School. Parents from the Savannah Drive area, a block long street contiguous to Equine Heights, had met as a group over the summer and decided to send their children back to the elementary school where they had previously gone. There was another group, however, who pulled their children out the first semester in a not unrelated fashion. Three sets of parents from the Golf Acres area pulled their children out together. By Christmas, seven families had pulled a total of eleven children out of Kennedy to attend either Dudgen or McShea, both known as traditional schools. These schools would have originally been their children's schools before Kennedy opened.

From a systematic survey of the parents who had made the decision to pull their children out, some striking similarities were discovered. As a group, they overwhelmingly valued a more academic approach to education and felt that Kennedy stressed social growth to the detriment of the academic program. One of the parents who had pulled his children out of Kennedy later said, "School was all fun and games; all we heard about was the fun teachers were having; the attitude and effort was fantastic, but no academic growth was shown. Kids were missing the basics." They felt that the new report card didn't really tell them anything. Many of the parents were older parents and the child effected was the "baby" of the family with an older child who had achieved well in the previously attended elementary school. Several of the parents also cited personality conflicts with particular teachers. By and large, though they weren't officially organized as a group, they felt on the short end of the organizational stick at Kennedy. They were quite open in responding to questions about a we/they dichotomy in the Kennedy parents. They could cite examples to prove that a certain parental clique had been the motivating force behind Kennedy's direction in the past year. Staff members were sensitive about parents pulling their children out of the school, and rumors were continually afloat of more parents who were going to make the decision at some point in time.

The Kennedy PAB focused in on a year-round school proposal for its issue in the 1973-74 school year. They gathered data and made visits, including the superintendent in one of their trips to a nearby school which was on the year-round school program. The PAB formulated a proposal by spring 1974 for a year-round school program at Kennedy, if the staff wanted to go along with it, but staff evidently is cool to the idea and it has bogged down at this point.

Issues: 1973-1974

The manner in which the school was staffed and the way in which they developed school spirit around the Kennedy Klan nickname has been discussed before. Several issues flared up in the 1973-74 school year, which served to create mistrust and ill feeling, particularly between the central office administrators and the Kennedy Klan. Certainly not as an end result, but definitely not unrelated to this fractitious atmosphere is the culmination of the spring semester 1974 with the resignation of the principal.

The first significant issue developed in the fall, 1973 over loss of state aides and cutting of teachers. Because of state equalization policies, the district had to cut twenty-one teaching positions for fiscal year '74 which began in January. Kennedy was to lose 1 3/4 teaching positions in the cuts. Leaders in the district's teachers association led by two Kennedy teachers assumed an antagonistic stance toward the cuts and the proposed budget. Association representatives conducted polls in each building asking whether members supported the superintendent. The association reported results that 75% did not, 25% did. The poll, and vocal leadership taken by the two Kennedy teachers were played up in front page treatment in the newspaper, adding fuel to the fire that Kennedy was a renegade school, Parents later reported that they heard that the administration had asked Althoff to quiet his teachers down at Kennedy. In addition, the president of the board came out to speak to the teachers about the proposed budget cuts, and the superintendent came out later also to explain the cuts.

The second significant issue developed over a central office proposal to initiate merit pay for aides. The move toward merit pay for aides was seen by the teachers association as the first step for all employees for merit pay. The Kennedy Klan signed an open letter to the editor of the newspaper taking opposition to the proposal. All individuals on the faculty including the principal signed the letter as the "Kennedy Klan". Althoff was called on the carpet later by Tom Forrest for not remaining behind the administrative team and siding with the teachers. Althoff later realized that he probably made a mistake siding with the teachers.

The 1974 budget also raised another porblem in the school-community environment. Beginning in 1973, state districts were encouraged to go to a per pupil equalization budgeting at the building level. Schools were allocated monies according to the number of students which they had, and that was to be the sole determiner of resource allocation. Ramosa J-3 began an equalization process in 1973, allocating teachers on a 1 to 25 ration to children. In the 1974 budget they increased the allocation to 1 to 26.5. They also refined the equalization process, in effect, tightening the fiscal noose around the school's neck. People at the central office blame Kennedy School for this occurring. Mr. Forrest stated "parents were demanding that we get our fair share." The superintendent stated, "Because of Kennedy, we've been drive to equal sharing of everything." The actual vehicle for this system of equalization is the state equalization act which shut off further mill rate levies for College Town. Parents in the Kennedy area, however, do not understand the equalization procedures in the district. They feel that IGE, as an innovative program, deserves extra funding and needs to be treated as a special case. In effect, they perceive the central office as pulling back support of the IGE program, where three and four years ago, central administration was highly supportive. Some Kennedy parents did mention that they had heard other instances in the district where the central office had made promises which they couldn't live up to; when probed, however, no examples could be given.

Jealousy Factor

Another issue which surfaced in the spring, 1974, but had evidently been bubbling below the surface has been labeled the jealousy factor. Part of that jealousy stems from the image of Rod Althoff in College Town. Althoff is definitely perceived as an innovator—a motivator, a person who gets things done. His record in College Town clearly shows that. Also, some administrators remember how he jumped over assistant principals to get his first principalship. Many parents said that when Mr. Althoff took the Kennedy job, they felt that they were getting the "fair-haired boy" of the district and that Althoff would surely be able to bring extra funds and special attention to the school. At first he did just that; he got some uncommitted funds from

Pat Douglas to send his unit leaders to a P-UL, and he arranged for a $45,000 (including matching grant) with federal funds for equipping his learning center. With the equalization process in the district and the change of heart if not conscious policy at the central office level have come bitter feelings from the parents towards the district. In fact, by 1974, the image of Althoff as the fair-haired boy may have been turned around 180°. Trayne said that when he consults with parents about a new principal, they tell him, "don't give us a Rod Althoff or an IGE program."

One part of the jealousy factor, then, is the favored school status of Kennedy, and the image of their principal, Rod Althoff. Another factor is the amount of travelling that the Kennedy and other IGE schools teachers did. The 1972-73 substitutes policy was to draw from a pool of susbstitutes, with no particular per school allocation. That has been changed for 1973-74, however, and each school is now allowed only two substitute days per year. If Kennedy teachers want to travel to an IGE conference or go and do a workshop, their colleagues have to cover for them. It should not be conjectured that the change in substitute policy was aimed entirely at Kennedy School. Evidently, the district made an understanding as a part of their agreement with the substitute teachers that they could receive a higher wage if their total number of substitute days were pared down, thus the two subs per school regulation. The net effect of the change, however, has been to put a crimp in Kennedy teachers travelling this year.

It should also be remembered that only Kennedy and Eisenhower teachers have Thursday afternoon off to conference with their parents.

This can cause jealousy with other teachers in the district; and Rod Althoff is associated with both schools.

Overall, the jealousy factor may be summed up by reviewing that IGE was put up on a pedestal; special favors and treatments were given. The have-nots are always going to be jealous of the haves, particularly when the community area being boosted is a middle and upper class neighborhood.

Central Office-Kennedy Tension

The various issues which have been discussed earlier all lend themselves to a certain amount of friction between Kennedy Elementary School and central office personnel. Part of the friction was due to the intense loyalties which developed toward Kennedy from students, teachers, and parents. The superintendent was often put on the spot in trying to work with Kennedy parents and also represent the district's interests. It seemed as though IGE had gotten special treatment before.

Principal Althoff had opened the first IGE school in College Town, Eisenhower Elementary School, and had "won" in stiff competition the DTS (differentiated teaching staff) funds which the central office has stored for that particular project. Pat Douglas, the assistant superintendent for curriculum, now feels that the central office appeared to be too much of an advocate for IGE by actively talking it up in principals' meetings and providing extra funds for incentives. As Douglas said, "we sweetened the pot." Althoff evidently used some of that uncommitted money when he took the Kennedy job, since his unit leaders were sent to an IGE conference in the spring of 1972.

Althoff's Resignation

Rod Althoff resigned in 1974 to go into private business. The kind of development job which opening a new school is requires a high commitment from its personnel. It also has a high burn out rate. When Althoff officially resigned, the superintendent asked him to reconsider. Even though they had their disagreements, Trayne was genuinely surprised and unhappy over the resignation.

Negative Connotations

It cannot be stated with any degree of certainty that IGE has a good or bad image in College Town. However, certain negative connotations were picked up throughout the interviews.

A subject which came up in nearly every interview was the fact that growing numbers of children were being removed from Kennedy School and placed on a district bus to travel to a neighboring school. The bus was provided for school year 1973-74 as a means to alleviate some of the overcrowding and also provide a means for those parents who were set against the IGE open school to get their children to another school and not have to transport the children themselves. This one-way busing has created some criticisms in the Kennedy school-community. Several said that if Kennedy attendance area children can be bused out, then children who want to go to Kennedy should be afforded a bus in. Children outside the attendance area may elect to go to Kennedy only if the two principals involved agree that space is available and the move is a good one. However, the fact that eleven children had been taken out of Kennedy School since January was a rumor that everyone seemed to dwell on.

Concern was expressed that parents were especially worried about children in the upper units, in how they would adjust to the junior high schools, and in the staff in the Outlook Unit.

Another negative connotation was the association which almost everyone had that the first year, 1972-73, had just been a horrible year for constructive discipline. It should be remembered that the school was overpopulated by fifty percent. However, the connection of a wall-less school with a lack of discipline was very definite.

Many parents interviewed wondered if there was hard academic data which demonstrated that IGE programs were more effective than the traditional programs. It might have been a function of the type of neighborhoods which Kennedy served, or it might have been knowing questions which to that point had not been resolved. IGE was not looked upon in the district as one alternative among many for elementary education. Rather, it was looked at as an either/or type of traditional or IGE programming in the elementary schools. Possible conflicts with the junior high programs were often cited as problems or issues associated with IGE.

Summary

The lack of defensiveness and openness about issues and conflicts should not be misconstrued into a totally negative picture of IGE implementation at Kennedy Elementary School. Rather, the school has a truly exemplary IGE program widely visited. Its home-school-community relations programs and activities are models of effective two-way communication.

Kennedy Elementary School is a fascinating case study of a committed minority of parents making their goals come alive. Without the parents and the principal, IGE would not have come about at Kennedy.

In contrast to the Kennedy Elementary School parents who were more concerned with alternative, open-style education, a small group of influential parents active for change at the next case study to be presented, Pluralist School-Community--Woodrow Wilson Elementary School--demanded an accountable, objectives base curriculum. IGE was a framework which would facilitate that need. The following case study will have a format similar to the preceding two case studies.

Pluralist School-Community: Woodrow Wilson Elementary School

Implementation of IGE at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School occurred when the home-school-community was in a state of flux. Parents were demanding more accountable student growth from the school's educational program. A dynamic, aggressive principal replaced a rather old-style educator who had retired after more than forty years of experience.

Many parents wanted change in the school's instructional program. The area central office leadership recognized their unhappiness and tried to appoint an individual who would mirror their concerns. Shirley Lee was appointed principal with a mandate to make student achievement more accountable, to individualize instruction, and to make school less boring. A cadre of influential people in the school-community environment was behind Lee. With the aid of additional resources from the state, she completed implementation of IGE at Woodrow Wilson with impressive gains in academic growth.

The demands of an articulate, politically astute school-community coincided with the direction of behavioral objective-based curricula at the county and state level to foster a climate for change.

Community Background

Affluent Suburb is a wealthy suburban area with a population of approximately 20,000 inhabitants. Although there is no heavy industrial development in Affluent Suburb, there are several office complexes of top industrial companies. There are also several service-type industries--shopping centers and so on, as well as a variety of office buildings in or near Affluent Suburb.

Affluent Suburb is an expensive area to live in. Several people related that the cheapest housing one might find in the area would start at more than $50,000 for an efficiency condominium. Affluent Suburb's population depends upon the capital for its job base. At least fifty percent of the parents in the Woodrow Wilson school-community work in government-related jobs. There is a demographic dichotomy in the population between old and new residents. There are several residents with long tenure in the community, and there are a great number of transient government-related families who move in for two or three years and move out. Affluent Suburb should be considered definitely a white-collar area with professionally oriented families.

School District Background

Woodrow Wilson Elementary School is located in one area of the county school system. In an effort to bring the administration closer to the schools and cope with the largeness of the county, county school administrators have broken schools into four areas, each with an area superintendent who reports to the division (county) superintendent of schools. The division superintendent reports to an eleven-member school board made up of one member from each of nine magisterial areas, one at-large member, and a student-elected member. Except for the student member, board of education members are appointed by the county supervisors from each area. In 1973, there were more than 136,000 students in the county system with an operating budget that year of over $177 million, including more than half a million dollars spent on staff development. Teachers and administrators are well paid, and the county system has an excellent reputation.

Woodrow Wilson Elementary School

Woodrow Wilson Elementary School was built in 1913, and additions in the early 1950s and early 1960s enlarged the school to a six hundred pupil capacity. The school is a traditional "egg crate" structure with two wings which run off of the office/library/cafeteria area.

Miss Gertrude Tilden was principal of Woodrow Wilson for over eleven years. Although she was not yet sixty-five years old when she retired in 1971, Miss Tilden had been in education for over forty years. Miss Tilden was known as being of the "old school" in her educational philosophies and practices. Concerns for accountability, objective-based curricula, and individualized instruction were foreign to her.

Beginning in the summer of 1970, rumblings of discontent with Miss Tilden began to surface in the Woodrow Wilson school-community environment. A letter to the editor of the local newspaper, critical of her traditional practices, appeared in the summer of 1970. There were community meetings in which the area administrators came in to discuss the principalship situation. Leadership of this group is hard to pinpoint. Some of the data suggests that the group might have been as large as forty or fifty individuals. It also appears that one person spearheaded the group. The parents who were disgruntled about the school's program were characterized as being younger, more progressive, and demanding more accountability from the school. At one point, the president of the PTA stepped in and told the division superintendent to indicate that though there were some unhappy parents, the PTA did not want Miss Tilden run out due to community pressure.

It was known by some that Miss Tilden was ill and was contemplating early retirement. However, the appointment of Shirley Lee as assistant principal in charge of instruction in December, 1970, came as a surprise both to Mrs. Lee and to the teachers at Woodrow Wilson. According to county policies, the school was too small in pupil size to warrant an assistant principal. There seems to be little doubt that the area administration was responding to community pressure to do something about the instructional program at Woodrow Wilson. Mrs. Lee worked with Miss Tilden through the winter. In April, 1971, Miss Tilden announced a June retirement and Lee was appointed principal.

Principal Profile

Mrs. Lee brought an interesting and varied professional history to the Woodrow Wilson principalship. She had previously taught in Pennsylvania. After she and her husband moved with their three children to the greater capital city area, Lee had a brief hiatus when she chose not to teach. However, Mrs. Lee was involved in civic associations as education chairperson and successively served as presidents of an elementary PTA, an intermediate PTA, and also served on the county council of PTAs. In 1965, Mrs. Lee inquired at the county personnel office about state certification requirements. Her inquiry coincided with a problem teaching station in the district. Lee was asked to take a first grade opening where five teachers had been unsuccessfully tried in the previous month. While teaching for the next two years, Mrs. Lee got her M.A. as a district nominee to a local university scholarship program. In the next few years, Lee taught in the upper elementary grades, did librarian's work, and taught a unique multi-age nongraded class for the gifted. Her initiation into school administration came through an internship with the division superintendent.

Following her administrative internship, Mrs. Lee was selected as a master teacher to be on the district's staff development team at the end of school year 1970. At this time, the district was moving towards individualization of instruction, objective-based curricula, team teaching and multi-age grouping. The district's staff development program is made up of teams of master teachers in each area who go into a school for two weeks in order to help the staff individualize instruction.

With the encouragement of the area superintendent, Miss Tilden had requested that the staff development team spend two weeks at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School. Prior to the staff development team's visit in December, 1970, the area superintendent called Lee in and told her that due to Miss Tilden's illness, Lee would be made assistant principal in charge of instruction. This came as quite a surprise to everyone, since Woodrow Wilson's school population of 524 did not meet the district's requirement of 711 for an assistant principalship. The staff development team was brought in to coincide with the appointment selection. The area superintendent asked Miss Tilden to call a meeting of the faculty and staff development team. At that time, the area superintendent announced Mrs. Lee's appointment and stated that he did not know two more different individuals than Miss Tilden and Mrs. Lee and wished them luck in their coexistence.

In her defined role as assistant principal in charge of instruction, Mrs. Lee was cognizant of the boundary between those interested in changing the school program and Miss Tilden's traditional beliefs. The volunteer aide program which Lee initiated in the spring of 1971 brought into school some of those individuals in the community who were anxious to get the school moving into a change sequence. For the first time, Mrs. Lee had teachers give their input into ordering materials. During this time, Mrs. Lee came across IGE literature and distributed it amongst the staff. The staff had identified the math and language areas as ones in which they wanted to attempt to individualize.

Initiation of IGE At Woodrow Wilson

Mrs. Lee attended a one day IGE awareness conference in a nearby city in April, 1971. After Miss Tilden announced a June retirement, Mrs. Lee had been named the next principal. Mrs. Lee made some personal contacts with the Director of Implementation at the Wisconsin Research and Development Center that day.

She went back to Woodrow Wilson and copied the material which she had on IGE from the awareness conference. That material was passed amongst the staff during April and May. Just prior to school's closing in June, Mrs. Lee called a brief staff meeting after school and received their unanimous consent to pursue implementation of IGE at Woodrow Wilson.

Influential parents were kept aware of curriculum changes at school also. After Mrs. Lee's appointment in April, she asked the PTA to appoint a parent advisory council with representation from each of the attendance communities. The representational nature of the parent advisory council was a direct response to charges that the PTA was made up of an established clique. One of the members of the seven person parent advisory council was an individual in whose office an evaluation of IGE was being handled. After learning of the school's interest in IGE, he was quite supportive of the evaluations of the IGE program. It was probably also helpful that he is a University of Wisconsin graduate and knows the former Director of the Center personally.

Implementation of IGE at Woodrow Wilson

Mrs. Lee followed up her contacts at the R & D Center for inservice help. She was rebuffed by the Director of Implementation because her state did not have a working agreement with the Center. During the summer, Lee and three teachers were invited to participate in a principal/unit leader workshop in a nearby state at their expense. They drove thirteen hours to the conference and found that it had been cancelled by the state coordinator. Center implementation personnel felt an obligation to Woodrow Wilson Elementary School and broke policy by sending three implementation specialists in for a total staff workshop in September, 1971.

Prior organizational changes helped usher IGE into Woodrow Wilson Elementary School. A volunteer aide program had been initiated the prior spring semester. Staff was working on continuous progress behavioral objectives in math and language arts. Lee had some familiarity with the leadership potential in the staff. She had worked with a few Woodrow Wilson teachers in the area's summer school, 1970. Those teachers became the natural leaders in the IGE organizational plan. Influential parents were included in the three day pre-school workshop. Members of the Parent Advisory Council were encouraged to attend the staff sessions, and the PTA served lunch on the first day of the workshop.

By the opening of school in fall, 1971, team (unit) leaders and team makeup had been designated. Fall semester was used to gear up for implementation for the Word Attack part of WDRSD. Staff continued to refine their efforts to changeover language arts and mathematics to a continuous progress, objectives based curricula. During this time, the county office came out with a set of objectives very similar to the work which Woodrow Wilson had been doing.

Fall, 1971 Contact with Parents

At the first PTA meeting in the fall, 1971, Mrs. Lee outlined the changes in the school program. She feels that the PTA people responded favorably. Lee had been working with the Parents Advisory Council which had been first appointed by the PTA. The makeup of that committee contained the influential president of the PTA, as well as the individual in whose office the R & D Center had been evaluated. These people and others in the school-community formed a base of influentials who could serve as able opinion leaders in the community. This leadership group knew the IGE system well. The PTA president had gone to three IGE briefings. He later said, "If IGE gave us performance, that's what we wanted."

Although the leadership group was well aware of IGE, the basic strategy for working with the general group of parents was to soft pedal the IGE label. Principal Lee said this about her contact with parents:

> It didn't come to them with the title IGE per se; it came to them with this is what we are doing for kids. So I never said we were going IGE per se. It fell into the county's commitment to education, the county's thrust for individualization of instruction, it was never presented to them we're going IGE, no way.

The specific avoidance of a label designation seemed to work out well in the long run. Parents could have possibly mis-focused on the label rather than what it was supposed to do for their child. Lee recognized this possible problem, "they would have been afraid of a label, but we just said this is what we are doing for your kids."

In an effort to open the school up to the community, Principal Lee initiated a series of coffees held at school. The coffees were held during school time on the first Wednesday of the month. The date became known to all and could be planned on. Parents later reported that Principal Lee's ability to speak forcefully in small group settings was used to good advantage in these coffees. Parents who were questioning the program later felt that perhaps she didn't hear all of their objections.

There can be little doubt that Mrs. Lee came into Woodrow Wilson with a mandate for change from the central office, interested parents, and teachers. Although she always followed channels of command through the area and division office, she was not afraid to initiate structure and make decisions. One administrator later summed Lee's implementation efforts by saying "Principal Lee is dynamically aggresive, humanistic; she did all of the IGE negotiations; she consulted with the staff and used IGE as a vehicle for turning around the faculty." An unobtrusive vote of confidence for Principal Lee's first year might be the fact that no teachers asked for transfers that year.

Spring, 1972 IGE Resource Model Application

Children in the county are tested using the SRA achievement battery at the end of the fourth and sixth grades, and since 1973 at the end of the second grades as well. Test results reported in March of Lee's first year as principal indicated that approximately 36% of the children schored below grade level. The principal checked the school's population against the norming population and found that Woodrow Wilson were equal or average when compared to county children. The district's director of research and testing tried to offer reassurance that the test scores were nothing out of the ordinary. However, two different forces seemed to congeal at this point. Principal and staff were concerned that the instructional program was not meeting all of the children's needs. In turn, Mrs. Lee knew that Woodrow Wilson's instructional staffing pattern was not truly reflective of the IGE differentiated staffing model complete with instructional/clerical aides. Because of county deadlines for fiscal year budget submissions in September, 1971 for September, 1972, no relief could possibly be built into Woodrow Wilson's operating budget until school year 1973.

The state had been heading towards an objectives based, continuous progress curriculum approach with their "standards of quality" mandate. Through talks on IGE to the superintendent's association and the state division of researchers, Principal Lee had created an awareness of IGE at the state level. This awareness at the state level and need at Woodrow Wilson resulted in discussions with state department personnel on the possibility of using Woodrow Wilson and IGE as a resource model. The pilot program designation resulted in $13,000 which brought them consultants to monitor curriculum implementation and inservice staff, materials, and an instructional aide. The resource model was planned as a three year study. The purpose, from the state department's point of view was to test the effectiveness of an Individually Guided Education Resource Model in reading (word attack and study skills) and basic mathematical skills. The heart of the model would be the use of the Instructional Programming Model and varied instructional groupings based on student needs.

The resource model was funded for the full amount for school year 1972-73 and renewed each of the following two years at the funding level needed. Again, the rationale for the resource model was to fully meet the needs of all the children. The net effect was to more nearly approximate the IGE staffing model and to offer a sum of money that staff could use to buy new materials and receive inservice help.

Results of the pilot program are quite complimentary to Principal Lee and the Woodrow Wilson Elementary School staff. They indicate that the target population showed substantial academic growth at the same growth rate which the entire school moved along.

One unanticipated result came out of the resource model plan. When the pilot program began, the county used the SRA testing program at the fourth grade level which meant that intervention could only begin at the fifth grade. At the suggestion of the county's research staff, provisions were made for testing all the children each year using the Stanford Achievement Test battery. Some staff complained later that they and their children felt pushed for academic results during the first two years of the pilot model. However, these concerns were never voiced at the time, and staff remained stable throughout the resource model period.

Spring, 1972 and Bond Referenda Defeat

In April, 1972, there was a fire at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School which damaged four classrooms in one wing. Plans were drawn up and presented to the county board of education to borrow $72,000 for the renovation. The motion to borrow money failed on a five to four vote. Principal Lee attributes the motion's defeat to one member in particular who "didn't do his homework."

Monies were promised out of the bond referendum which was going to the voters later that spring. Plans had been laid as early as 1970 for renovation of Woodrow Wilson Elementary School. The projected cost in 1972 was $600,000. Construction was to begin that summer with children back in the new structure by January, 1973. School bonds were part of a total county referendum which failed in the county-wide election. Long term residents of Affluent Suburb maintain that it was the first bond referenda defeat that they could remember. Observers feel that monies were not specified to a great enough extent; they were not earmarked or advertised as going for this area or that area, but seemed to be marked for allocation according to board priorities. In turn, political maneuverings may also have caused the bond's defeat. One influential county supervisor not in Affluent Suburb got his supporters out against the bond and led the fight against the bond's passage.

Before turning to the second year of IGE implementation at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School, an analysis should be made of the school's program of home-school-community relations programs and activities (see Figure 3-3). One needs to be careful to separate out those activities and programs which emanate from the county office. The county sponsors a full time school-community relations director whose job is to provide public relations services for the county's schools. His office coordinates many of the written communiques about different district wide activities.

Home-School-Community Relations Programs and Activities

PTA.--The first PTA in the county was located at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School in the 1920s. The PTA is the heart of home-school-community activity. They are governed by an active executive council which includes besides the normal offices the volunteer aide chairman,

FIGURE 3-3

WOODROW WILSON'S HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES

Activity	Responsibility
PTA	Principal and Elected Teacher
PTA Volunteers	PTA Chairperson
PTA Fair	PTA Chairperson
PTA Art Volunteers	PTA Chairperson
Parent Coffees	Principal
New Parent Night	Principal
AAUW Aides	Principal
Printed Material	Principal

ad hoc committee chairpeople, and a teacher representative. The PTA's major function in the home-school-community environment is to serve as a forum for discussion of pertinent issues and also to raise money for the school. During the fall, 1971, they showed the "One at a Time Together" film at the first PTA meeting and discussed IGE implementation and how it would benefit their children. As is true in most PTAs, there is a nucleus of 20 to 50 families who are faithful to attend and work at PTA functions. Attendance is variable according to the program offered.

The PTA normally sponsors a Book Fair each year; the donations are given to the library to buy materials as they deem necessary. The Book Fair is normally held in November during Educational Week. One change which Mrs. Lee made in the distribution of funds from Book Week was to take the money donated from the proceeds and put it into the school fund, rather than designate it solely for the library.

The PTA also sponsors the "Back to School Night," usually held in October. After a general orientation, parents are encouraged to go out into the school to meet with teams and interact with teachers.

PTA Volunteers.--Beginning in January, 1971, Principal Lee started a volunteer program which later fit the IGE program well. This program has proved to be very popular. The first year and a half of its existence, it undoubtedly served to allow parents who were wondering about the new program to come to school under the guise of doing some volunteer work. PTA volunteers are given a specific task to handle, such as helping in the library, rather than wandering around wondering what to do next. During school year 1972-73, they had about 150 people participate as aides, including parents, pre-student teachers from a local university, and AAUW volunteers.

PTA Fair.--Beginning in 1972, a PTA sponsored fair has been a culminating event for parents, children, and teachers in the spring each year. Many schools have fairs in the county; it isn't specific to Woodrow Wilson. Observers agreed that it served to build up school spirit. Everybody cleans out their attic to bring items to sell at the flea market. Parents seem to really take leadership for this event and several reported many good associations with the fair.

PTA Art Volunteers.--Volunteers who work specifically with art instruction in the school are also coordinated through the PTA. The art volunteers were started as a result of a budget cut taking art instruction out of the elementary schools. Woodrow Wilson parents were in the forefront of an organized lobby group responding to the budget cut. Parents who responded to the problem in 1971 were mothers, primarily of children in the school, who had a talent or interest in art and wanted to see art instruction perpetuated in the school. The superintendent mandated that art aides needed training prior to classroom entry. The district's art curriculum specialist has trained over five hundred art aides in the last three years county wide. The art aides work it out with the teachers so that children get art instruction once every two weeks. More than fifty parents participated in the art aides program at Woodrow Wilson the first year of the program. In school year 1973-74, approximately fourteen art aides participated faithfully, four of whom had art degrees.

Parent Coffees.--During Mrs. Lee's first full year as principal, she initiated parent coffees at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School which were held the first Monday of every month. Other principals in the district have held or now hold parent coffees and the idea did not originate at Woodrow Wilson. However, the parent coffees served as a springboard for discussions about IGE, particularly the school year 1971-72, the first year of implementation. Several parents said that Mrs. Lee would circulate amongst the parents and chit chat for a while, but then the coffee would focus on a particular topic or question with Irene leading the discussion. Parents who stayed were encouraged to stay for lunch with their child.

New Parent Night.--Each fall after the children new to the school had been tested, Lee hosted a new parent night to give them their child's test scores and discuss the school's program. This program began in 1972 and continued in 1973 but has been discontinued. Principal Lee reported that there was good discussion about the program and how it would benefit their children.

AAUW Aides.--Principal Lee asked the local AAUW chapter to consider a tutorial program as a possible community service project. They began work in 1972 and worked primarily in one to one or small group situations with the children, normally focusing on reading.

Printed Material.--There is a plethora of printed material generated both by the school and also by the county's school-community director. Of most importance probably, is the parent's handbook which is sent home each fall. Included in the handbook are the rules and regulations, important dates, and peculiarities to the school. The school also sends out several mimeographed notices each year usually sent home with the child. Some parents complained that there were too many notices and that PTA programs were announced with little prior notice. The school makes good use of their luncheon menu because they also include dates on the menu which is sent home to announce the monthly fare.

1972-73: Second Year of IGE at Woodrow Wilson

School opened in the fall, 1972 with no changes in staff. Teachers had finished a full year of IGE implementation in 1971 to 1972, and with no changes in staff, this allowed a staff development sequence, as Principal Lee said to "really move in on the implementation of IGE." The resource model had been funded for a second year which added $10,000 to the school fund. Staff was able to request materials and resources from that fund, and inservice consultants were brought in to help with the implementation of new curricula.

Volunteer aides were brought to school and served, particularly in the fall, to check tests and papers and collate and check materials related to curriculum development. The aides were also put into an instructional mode, particularly the AAUW aides, to supplant the identified children in the resource model. They stressed two curriculum areas, math and reading. Some teachers felt that the social studies and science programs were neglected in the emphasis on reading and math. However, it was clear that the principal generated enthusiasm and drive for mastery on academic skills in math and reading.

There were some who criticized this overemphasis on academic achievement. The new parents night, discussed earlier, was one time in which Mrs. Lee evidently had to take some sharp questions from parents who felt that their child might be put into too much testing. However, it did not seem to be a severe problem.

The monthly parent coffees became a focal point for discussions about IGE and the continuation of implementation. They again served to bring out those parents who might be questioning or wondering what actually was going on in the school. As their schedule allowed, staff could attend the coffees. The coffees were held in the morning, so few if any staff members were free from teaching duties to attend the functions.

One new activity started in school year 1972-73 which included the school, parents, and the community. Mrs. Lee and the staff agreed that a few of the children were lacking in discipline, particularly during the lunch hour. In a few cases, children were forbidden to eat lunch in the lunchroom until their parents had come in and had lunch at school. As a part of the school opening up to the community, parents were invited in to have lunch with their child during national school lunch week also.

PTA Focus on Renovation

Following the failure of the bond referendum in 1972, the principal and the PTA sponsored several sessions with the school architect about the plans for the school. County specifications were readily available for all interested to view. Renovation for Woodrow Wilson had been planned as early as 1970. The county had initiated a policy of building flexible space schools. They did not build or renovate existing buildings in the "egg crate" style.

The Principal's Advisory Council spearheaded continuing architect-parent discussions. In the spring of 1973, a vote was taken among parents concerning the proposed design of the school with flexible space winning out. Staff also had an opportunity to review the specifications and make suggestions for space utilization. Several parents later said that they felt that the central office personnel, particularly the assistant superintendent for construction, came to the discussion with his mind already made up and did not come to solicit advice but rather to inform.

The spring, 1973 bond issue passed in the county wide election. The county administrators specified five schools which were to be effected by the increased monies, Woodrow Wilson one of them, and people got out behind the bond issue without the strong organized opposition which had occurred in 1972.

The building program was to start over the summer, but one major decision needed to be made before school could start in 1973. Parents were asked to decide whether they wanted their children to be bused to other schools or whether they could put up with having instruction take place in portable trailers behind the school. Parents responded overwhelmingly that the trailers would be okay, as long as it would be for a short period of time.

School Year 1973-74: A Snapshot

Before turning to address the issues generated by teachers and parents at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School, a highlight of the school year 1973-74 could add some final data to this analysis.

The resource model was funded for a second year after the first year results indicated that school wide, a mean jump in percentiles of twenty points had occurred. Staff implemented the Wisconsin study skills program during 1973-74. There were no transfers in staff. One additional staff member was picked up as a result of increased attendance. During 1973-74, Woodrow Wilson started gaining students with transfers from private schools and parents moving into the area partly because of the school's good reputation.

Mrs. Lee was granted a half year sabbatical during spring semester, 1974 to complete her doctorate. Her replacement was a former teacher in an area school. To a secure, experienced staff who liked Principal Lee's style of leadership, the replacement seemed inexperienced, weak and unable to make a decision. Parents were also unhappy about the replacement and wondered if he would continue or if Mrs. Lee would be coming back. The replacement was saddled with questions and complaints about the addition to the school and the children in trailers. At one point, the primary unit threatened to ask for a transfer if he remained. A decision was made to replace him, whether or not Mrs. Lee returned. Mrs. Lee moved on to an intermediate principalship upon the nomination of the division superintendent.

The renovation was scheduled to be completed by May, 1975. Parents were justly angry over the delays and continued time in the trailers and were looking at the flexible space structure with some apprehension. An analysis of the issues and overall style of conflict resolution might facilitate discussion of the concerns of the Woodrow Wilson school-community environment.

Issues

Overall Style of Conflict Resolution

There are several instances in the last five years of school-community history at Woodrow Wilson which indicate that there are several power centers in the community which characterize a pluralistic environment. The group which favored removing Miss Tilden, the former principal, was an ad hoc group which dissolved. The change oriented individuals who first served on the Parent Advisory Council when Mrs. Lee took over did not continue in their leadership roles. Parents who added their complaints about an incompetent teacher who was not renewed were not part of a formalized group but arose with the issue.

Moreover, one should also note that several instances were cited by school and community people where they made conscious efforts to cut through the red tape to get to the key decision-maker. When the PTA president wanted to make a request, he had lunch with the division superintendent rather than channelling his efforts through the area office. Although she would follow channesl of communication, the principal might also lobby board members or key decision makers on a pet project or important decision. It is not unusual to find a community skilled at political manipulation when so many of its residents depend on the Federal government for their livelihood.

Renovation/Trailers/Fear of Open Space

The history behind the April, 1972 fire and the delays due to failure to secure board passage of the loan and then the 1972 bond failure have been highlighted before. Prominent members of the Woodrow Wilson school-community did not support it. In fact, the president of the PTA, also a CFCA member, testified against the 1972 bond issue primarily because he felt allocation of the monies was not spelled out in great enough detail. The primary vehicle for 1972 bond opposition, besides the county politician's group in another section of the county, was the CFCA, the Concerned Federation of Civic Associations, a group quite active in monitoring school fiscal transactions. They can marshal accountants and economists who normally earn their money in places like the Federal Office of Management and Budget to spend their nights moonlighting while analyzing the county's proposed budget. The net effect of the bond issue's defeat, however, was to delay the starting of complete renovation of the school.

The county superintendent initiated a policy and program of building flexible space design elementary schools. Plans had been made as early as 1970 for further renovation of Woodrow Wilson; it would be "further renovation" because Woodrow Wilson had added a wing onto its structure in the early 1960s. Attempts had been made to include parents in the discussions about the school renovation. Parents had complained, as had been mentioned earlier, that it was essentially a one-way style of communication—the architect bringing out plans for them to review--rather than developmental kind of planning asking what kind of structure would you like to have for your child. Renovation plans were finalized at the well-attended spring, 1973 music program which was preceded by a final discussion with the assistant superintendent for construction leading the discussion.

Renovation did not start until well after the 1973 bond issue had been passed due to the typical series of problems which a building program can run into. However, in the interim, Woodrow Wilson parents had decided to keep their children at the school site to be housed in portable trailers until the renovation was completed. Promises, tacitly understood, if not out on the table, seem to have been extended that the discomfort of trailers would only be a short time. Parents were initially upset about having to pay good tax dollars to have their children in trailers. They became more upset at the delays and misinformation about when the building would actually begin. Finally, several parents really became upset when the extent of renovation became known.

Woodrow Wilson parents seemed at best skittish, or at worst, actually hostile to the concept of open space. The nearest elementary school to Woodrow Wilson, Bolling Road, had just been through a disastrous open space period. The Bolling Road principal evidently more or less decreed that the walls would be knocked out over the summer and had moved staff and students into the "renovated" structure without any preparation.

By the end of the first semester at Bolling Road, parents were in an uproar. The Bolling Road experience weighted heavily in the recollections of Woodrow Wilson parents. During spring semester 1974 while Mrs. Lee finished her doctorate, the substitute principal made an effort to get parents to visit successful flexible space schools. However, several parents associated open space with permissiveness, a lack of discipline, and a movement away from concern for academic subject matter.

Teachers were, by and large, looking forward to the new structure and were making every effort to prepare curricular material to fit the new space. Many saw it as the logical extension for the individualization of instruction which they had been striving for. Staff, in general, wanted to encourage a "wait and see", give us some time to work it out attitude when they moved into a new structure. Certainly part of the attitude set which emerged in concerns about the new open space design were part of an emotional set which made discipline a much discussed topic as well.

Discipline

First, it should be emphasized that the concern for discipline was not only at Woodrow Wilson, but was county wide. In a county-wide survey of parents conducted in 1974, 83% of the parents returning a survey indicated at least approval of the schools in general. However, the most frequently nominated concern of parents in the county was the lack of discipline in the schools. This concern came out very often amongst parents at Woodrow Wilson.

Teachers could and did cite examples of poor discipline on the buses, noisy halls, and lack of respect for teachers. This concern for discipline has simmered over the last five years. Lee had instituted a policy, it will be remembered, of having parents eat lunch with their child, but this had been used in only two or three cases. The substitute principal attempted to make improvement of children's self image his program while he was principal in Lee's absence. The final PTA meeting in spring, 1974, was organized around the topic of discipline. Seven parents, four teachers, and the substitute principal showed up for that meeting with some discussion but no resolution of the issue. One has to question if discipline was that wide a concern in the Woodrow Wilson area with that small a turnout.

Summary

Change sequences begin with the initiation of a felt need to change. That felt need existed at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School and the "old style" principal was not able to respond. Implementation of IGE at Woodrow Wilson coincided with county and state thrusts for more accountable school programs. But Principal Lee captivated on the desire for change among the central office personnel, the parents, and the teachers.

Woodrow Wilson Elementary School is a fascinating study of school changeover, dynamic principal leadership, and a pluralist school-community in a turbulent, fast paced, high expectancy district.

Finally, the last case study to be presented, the Dominated School-Community--Kenyatta Elementary School--is a case study interestingly different from the other three presented in this chapter. It has a format similar to the other three presented.

Dominated School-Community: Kenyatta Elementary School

Implementation of IGE in the Bay City School District and Kenyatta Elementary School has focused on the multi-unit organizational plan, or the unit plan, as they call it. A group of individuals committed to total community development in the poorer black areas of the district, a superintendent of the same persuasion, and a master planning committee (1968-70) initiated sequences for change toward connecting home-school-community processes for improving education. They conceptualized a total scheme of community development conceiving the unit plan as an initial organizational aspect of the district's thrust toward Community-Family Guided Education (CFGE).

Nearly all home-school-community relations programs and activities center around the CFGE concept. CFGE relates to an effort to involve the home, school, and community in collaborative efforts to work with the child's development. In this extended-family concept, the student's teachers are viewed as part of his extended-family matrix. The important affective areas of parental love and affection are supposed to be joined with the teachers and educative community into decisional input over the child's educational direction. CFGE and Bay City stress parental participation in decision-making at the unit, school building, and district level. At this point (1975), the CFGE concept exists more as a process the district is moving towards than a fully implemented program.

Bay City School District generally, and Kenyatta Elementary School are fascinating examples of how a district can be turned around or at least aim can be taken by a total developmental effort designed to erase the "poverty culture" of poor black families and communities.

School District History

The Bay City School District has grown from a one school operation in the late 1920s to include seven schools (1975) in a K-8 district. There are five elementary schools varying in pupil size from the middle three hundreds to some with over six hundred students. The two middle schools are each located, campus style, adjacent to an elementary school and each houses grades seven and eight.

According to state standards, Bay City is a fiscally poor community and receives about the top amount in state aides. In addition, the district qualifies for a great deal of federal assistance and capitalizes on every program available for low-income communities, including Title monies and the Teacher Corps program.

The office of the superintendency has contained a black administrator since 1967 when Mr. Jack Major became the first Afro-American superintendent in the state. Major initiated a series of inter-related master planning committees. These were the influential in sequencing the implementation of IGE in Bay City and will later be discussed at greater length. Major left the district in 1972 to become Assistant Superintendent in a large southern city. His assistant, Mr. Marvin

Wayman, also an Afro-American, was named the acting superintendent while the board began a nation-wide search for a successor to Major.

Wayman came into the Bay City district in 1968 as a principal at Oak Park Elementary School. He is credited as turning the school program around in that community to one of blakc pride and cultural awareness. In 1971, Mr. Major selected Wayman as assistant superintendent. Wayman's established responsibilities rested in the Planning, Development and Training Council which continued policy and goal setting begun under the master planning committees.

The Bay City Board of Education has five members. Each serves a four year term with two or three elected every two years. The composition of the board has reflected the white to black changeover in the district over the last ten years. All of the current members of the Board are Afro-Americans.

One of the instrumental leaders of black pride in Bay City has been a recent board president, Herbert Lincoln. Lincoln began a tutoring program in the middle 1960s with Ms. Willis* which mushroomed into an accredited junior college, Kenya Community College and the Kenya schools. Lincoln was selected to run for the board of education by an informal caucus of black leaders in 1967. That caucus influenced board nominations in 1967, 1969, 1971 and 1973 but was disbanded and did not have a set of candidates for the 1975 election. In turn, Lincoln was not standing for re-election in 1975. However, observers did not see any relaxation in the thrust of black pride from the board of education.

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*Ms. Willis began Kenya Community College in 1967 and the Kenya schools, a private school settlement.

Marvin Wayman became superintendent by board resolution in July, 1973. That official action followed some rather fractious turmoil the six months previous to his selection. Major resigned his post in October, 1972 and Wayman was asked by the board to serve as acting superintendent. At the same time that the board was searching for a new superintendent, new board elections were taking place and two of the three incumbents were not running for re-election. Included in the three incumbents were to whites and a black board member. A lame duck board existed from the time of new elections in March to the new board taking office in June. They selected a new superintendent, also a black administrator. Wayman's supporters in the community, particularly associated with Kenya Community College, the center of Board support, and Oak Park, the community where he formerly was principal, were instrumental in organizing a one-day boycott of classes to demonstrate their displeasure at the lame duck board's apparent choice of the superintendent. The newly-appointed superintendent decided to resign. The new board selected Wayman, and he took over in July as "the people's choice."

One other important person in the development of the Bay City School District in the last five to eight years is Dr. Theresa DuBois. She taught seventh and eighth grade social studies in Bay City prior to completing her Ph.D. in education. Dr. DuBois can best be viewed as the conceptualizer for Community-Family Guided Education in Bay City. She and Mr. Wayman are usually displayed in print as the co-authors of the concept. DuBois' positional influence came as a result of her attachment to the long range planning committees and later as consultant to Wayman's superintendency.

The district's teachers are organized into a union. In the fall of 1974, the teachers association staged a week-long strike over a variety of issues. The strike was characterized by school observers as a catharsis, a purging for teacher dignity. The background and net effect of the strike will be discussed later. However, it will be important in the development of Community-Family Guided Education and Bay City to follow the trend toward shared influence in education. Influence is to be shared with parents, teachers, students and community members in an extended family concept.

Long Range Planning and IGE/CFGE

When Jack Major became superintendent in 1967, he was given a mandate by the board of education to come up with a master administrative plan which would re-structure education in Bay City. Lincoln and others in the Kenya caucus were quite directive in their attempts to bring about change in the schools. That group began informally as a core in a citizens committee which was created to review the elementary school reading program. They saw themselves representing views of the lower socioeconomic and predominantly black west of the freeway residents as opposed to the predominantly white east of the freeway group. With the board changeover in 1967 came Major and the long range planning committees.

The long range master planning committee began its work in October, 1968. One of the first items of its business was to contract the services of the county's Title III planning office for consultation services, resource aid, and planning guidance. The Title III planner assigned to Bay City was Robert Drowner. Drowner was committed to the master planning committee twenty percent of his time. During their first year of existence, the master planning committee met some eighteen times. Much of their time was spent discussing the results of trips which they had been making to observe exemplary programs in the country. They did not make a visit to Wisconsin to examine the nascent I and R units (organizational predecessors to IGE) which were in pilot stage at that point. They visited several schools which had bits and pieces of the IGE model, however, including a diagnostic curriculum model, differentiated staffing pattern, and close community and school interaction.

Initiation of IGE in Bay City

During the second year (1969-70) of the master planning committee, two teams from the committee visited multiunit schools in Wisconsin and Portland, Oregon. They evidently were impressed with the innovation because they made the multiunit plan the heart of their school reorganization. The master planning committee made a variety of other recommendations including development of the curriculum along a behavioral objectives continuum, central office administrative changes including management by objectives. However, the heart of the instructional program reorganization would be the multiunit plan, or unitization, as it was coined.

Robert Drowner, the Title III planning assistant, probably was in part responsible for guiding Bay City toward IGE and multiunit schools.

One year later in spring, 1971, Drowner became the state IGE coordinator. He was "sold" on IGE and multiunit schools.

An implementation strategy was laid out following the master planning committee's report in 1970 which targeted 1971 as the school year in which unitization efforts would begin in selected schools. Two related factors caused the change in emphasis from multiunit schools to Community-Family Guided Education. The Title III planning office ran out of funds, and they were not refunded. Marvin Wayman became assistant superintendent and followed on the work of the master planning committee with his Planning and Development and Training Council with Dr. DuBois as a consultant to the Counsel.

Kenyatta Elementary School

One of the two schools selected for implementation of the unit plan was Kenyatta Elementary School; the other was Los Almes Elementary School. Kenyatta is located on a site which is about twenty acres large. There is a middle school adjoining the elementary school in a campus style arrangement. The original Kenyatta Elementary School was built in the late 1950s and a library added in the middle 1960s. The school contains approximately six hundred students and is staffed by five units of teachers, a principal, a certified vice-principal and Community Principal, a community counselor, and two secretaries.

Kenyatta Elementary School has had five principals in the last eight years. The principal who was there when the school was implemented in 1971, Mr. Karl, left at the end of the year and was replaced by Sam

Mitte. Mitte is a younger educator who moved to Bay City in the late 1960s. Superintendent Major evidently went out and recruited several black staff members when he took over in 1967. Mr. Mitte came into the district as a vice-principal.

Staff seems to have remained fairly stable in recent years at Kenyatta. At this time, there is a core of teachers who have been at Kenyatta for five years or more. Some teachers are new to the school also. Unit leaders are selected by the superintendent with the principal's advice, and the unit leaders there now are all veterans.

Implementation of IGE/CFGE at Kenyatta

There are several important themes regarding the implementation of the unit plan, as they first called it, CFGE, as it became know, and IGE as it is usually termed. The thrust and implementation direction came down through the central office personnel from Mr. Wayman. There was little or no staff decisional input to the implementation strategies. If teachers didn't like the concepts, they didn't have to stay and teach at Kenyatta. There was little home-school-community communication or involvement regarding the new program the first year of implementation. There was some communication in the second year of implementation about the program.

Initiation

The original contact with the concept probably occurred in the first year of the master planning committee, 1968-69, as has been discussed before. During the second year of the master plan committee, 1969-70, five committee members visited multiunit schools in two different trips to Portland, Oregon and Wisconsin. The unit plan became the basis for the instructional program of the master plan document. During 1970-71, the Title III planning center held awareness conferences on the IGE model. Robert Drowner was the key contact person for IGE at that point not only in the Bay City area but the entire state. He was named IGE state coordinator in the spring of 1971.

First Year of Implementation 1971-72

School opened in the fall of 1971 with the organizational plan centered around two units each with ten teachers or more. The primary unit began implementation of the Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development. The intermediate unit began implementing an objective-based math curricula. Primary emphasis was on staff implementation of the IGE.

There was no one whom the teachers evidently could consult for implementation direction. Browner was tied up with statewide coordination of IGE. Wayman had recently become the district assistant superintendent and was busy in that post. Dr. DuBois was serving in the district as a friend and consultant to the district effort, as well as coordinator of student teaching with Bay City and a nearby state university. The principal, Mr. Karl, seemed to be of little or no help as well.

The teachers and children struggled their way through the first year of implementation. By the spring, two teachers in the intermediate unit had decided to take their team of ten and divide it up into two teams of five.

Contact with the Home, 1971-72

Observers at Kenyatta Elementary School do not remember any concerted effort to involve or communicate the changes in the instructional program to the home and community. If one reads the master plan document, it specifically isolates school year 1971-72 as a development year in the school with home and community involvement coming the second year.

Teachers did remember isolated telephone calls and questions about the unit plan from some parents. Basically, the questions centered on why my child was moving from one class to another. What did the units mean in terms of pupil placement? Was the reason that my child was placed in a particular unit because of his acadmic ability or what? These were related as typical of the few questions which evidently were raised by Kenyatta parents during the first year of unit plan implementation.

Implementation Continuation 1972-73

Several things happened to smooth out the implementation of the unit plan during Kenyatta's second year of operation as an IGE school. Sam Mitte became principal during the summer, 1972. Mitte's style of leadership is characterized by his teachers as letting them make decisions about things which are of importance to them. Teachers had felt dominated by central office implementation strategies, frustrated by the expectancies the central office had for them, and irked at the lack of sound direction regarding the makeup of teams. Teaming had represented a change for teachers at Kenyatta and had caused some personality clashes. One of Mitte's first decisions was to further the breakdown of the large units which had begun with the splitting of the intermediate unit by splitting the primary unit up as well.

The instructional program proceeded much more smoothly during school year 1972-73. Undoubtedly a helping factor was the addition of two hours of negotiated planning time during Wednesday afternoons from 1:30 to 3:30. Unit-Families used the time to plan their instructional programs and get their curricular materials together. Teachers reported that smaller units made a big difference as well. Teachers and staff began a focus on communication with the Kenyatta parents about the unit plan. Testimony to the fact that teachers felt better about the program the second year was offered by one teacher who said, "We knew it the second year, so we could tell the parents."

Communication with Parents in Year Two

The basic operations of the unit plan were presented to Kenyatta parents in an open house held in November, 1972. Attendance was reported as sparse from parents. One teacher reported that the eight staff members in her unit (five teachers and three aides) outnumbered the total number of parents who visited with her unit that night. Turnout was better in the primary units. Questions were asked of the teachers, and again, they centered on student placement. One teacher later observed that the parents "accepted the program basically at the start. The ones who could have and would have rocked the boat were at the fall meeting, and their questions were satisfied." Highlights about the unit plan were also contained in the school's bimonthly newsletter which is sent home to all parents by their children. Most parents reported that they had some reservations about the program the first year, but the second year seemed to go much smoother. They understood what the teachers were trying to do, and the students reacted better to an improved program.

Extending CFGE: 1973-75

Teachers continued their efforts to build skill levels in the curriculum through school year 1973, working in the areas of science and social studies. The intermediate units, in particular, found difficulty in extending skill levels in these two areas. They found that curriculum development of this type required a much greater amount of time and analysis than they had devoted. After a few months of trying to group according to skill levels in reading, math, science, and social studies with all the students, teachers and parents felt that the students were moving too much. Staff decided to cut back on the student movement and concentrate on their proven programs in math and reading.

Beginning in 1973-74, parents were supposed to be included as elected representatives to the unit meetings, and on the KIC (Kenyatta Instructional Council--their IIC).

At the unit level, the aides--community teachers, who are parents as well--are included in the decision-making to offer some parental inclusion. Attendance by the other community members varies with the unit one is analyzing. Overall attendance by parents could best be described as sporadic, at best, non-existent at worst. The parents who have been designated to serve in these roles at the school also work at school in some capacity, lunch room helper, and quite often are at school. However, almost all the teachers reported that parental inclusion in decision-making was an illusion in the actual day to day, week to week operation. In its ideal form, the structure existed through CFGE for that to happen. In its real form, it was not happening during 1973-74, nor was it happening in 1974-75. District administrators were open about this perceived gap between the real and the ideal. They stressed that CFGE implementation was a long term effort. CFGE does exist in some units in certain schools. Teacher reluctance to include parents was a big stumbling block to its complete implementation. In turn, many parents seemed to feel inadequate in educational decision-making roles. Also, teachers thought that the fact that so many of the parents were both working was another factor for the lack of parental invovement to this point.

One final component of CFGE was developing in 1974-75 and needs to be highlighted. In order to extend the concept of programmatic control to the school level, boards of education called mini-boards had been implemented at each school beginning in the fall. Their roles and responsibilities are spelled out in some detail in print. However, their actual decision making capabilities, both legal and practical, were untested at the time of this study (1975).

Home-School-Community Programs and Activities

The extensive programs and activities which exist at Kenyatta Elementary School and Bay City School District will be collapsed into three conceptual sets (see figure 3.4). They are: 1) those dealing with the philosophy and practices of CFGE; 2) those peculiar to Kenyatta Elementary School not particularly associated with CFGE; and 3) those on-going at the district level and not at Kenyatta Elementary School alone.

CFGE Related

The basic philosophy and conceptual set behind CFGE has already been discussed. Its major components are an extended family relationship among students, school personnel, and the home. It began in Bay City as a unit plan, extended from the multiunit organizational plan in IGE. Marvin Wayman and Dr. DuBois co-authored the concept. When Dr. DuBois was asked to assess the gap between the ideal as it was presented in print and the real as it now existed in the schools, she said, "Yes, the gap between the real and ideal is a fact." She maintained that there were pockets of community-family units implementing the program at different schools. When Dr. DuBois was asked to rate the implementation of CFGE at Kenyatta on a 100% scale, she responded that it would probably get a thirty percent. She went on to say that CFGE is a long-term community process, needing lead-in time of perhaps ten years.

CFGE: Mini-Boards.—The mini-boards are also part of the CFGE philosophy of extending control of institutions and services to the level where people can feel a grasp of control over their destinies. The mini-boards were criticized by the teachers. Teachers were admittedly fearful about the power which the mini-boards might have over budgetary decision-making, as well as staff tenure and personnel selection.

FIGURE 3-4

KENYATTA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL'S HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROGRAMS AND ACTIVITIES

Activity	Responsibility
CFGE Related	
Mini Boards	Principal and Elected School Personnel
Parents at Unit Meetings	Unit Leaders
Community Personnel	Principal
Other Programs	
Parent Advisory Council	Principal
Home Visits	Teachers
Parent Day	Teachers
Open House	IIC

The mini-boards are made up of eleven members, five from the school and six from parents in the attendance area. The five representatives from the school are the principal, two certified teachers, and two classified personnel. Two or three from the community adults who may or may not be Kenyatta parents are included with two or three Kenyatta parents as well to total six. Selection of parent mini-board representatives is done by an open nomination, open election procedure.

Mini-boards were implemented in the school year 1974-75. They were slow to get going, because observers at Kenyatta and the district reported poor attendance by mini-board community and board members. This might be expected when one is venturing into a developmental area with many gray areas of decisional ability and mandate.

CFGE: Parents in Decision-Making Roles.—According to the conceptual papers which outline CFGE, parents are to be seen as co-teachers who share authority, responsibility and overall management of their child's educational program with the teachers. This is to occur on a one to one basis from teacher to child to home, as well as including parents in decision-making roles at the unit and IIC (called KIC at Kenyatta) level. The gap between the concept as presented in its ideal form and the realities of parental participation have been discussed before. More important, however, is the realization that a formal structure has been established. If the thrust from the central office and board continues to implement CFGE, parental decision-making at unit and KIC levels will become a reality.

CFGE: "Community" Personnel at School.--Included in the organizational plan at Kenyatta Elementary School and other schools in the district are community principals or principal assistants, community teachers—instructional aides who are working towards an AA or BA, and a community counselor. The community principals were each paid slightly over $8000 in 1973-74. Their primary functions seem to be out in the school at all times managing the daily student conflicts and maintaining discipline. Their presence is definitely known by both teachers and students and seems to be a calming and quieting factor in the school environment.

The community teachers have been in the district since the middle 1960s. They were first implemented through Title monies. Their basic roles are to serve as instructional aides. They are supposed to be continuing their education for an eventual completion of a B.A. in education. The community teachers are included in decision-making at every unit; they actively participate and offer ideas; and their input is welcomed by the teachers. The community counselor is primarily cast in the role of a social worker/guidance counselor who oversees a variety of home to school programs and activities.

Other Programs Specific to Kenyatta

PAC.—With the Title programs in the 1960s came also parental advisory councils (PAC) at each school. As a heavy recipient of Title monies, Kenyatta has had one for several years. It is supposed to be made up of the normal distribution of educators and community representatives and meets monthly to review school programs and problems.

One twist which was developing in early 1974-75 was that the PAC was beginning to meet simultaneously with the mini-board. In effect, the two boards were mergin their roles, functions, and powers.

Home Visits by Teachers.--As a part of board policy, teachers are required to go out for two home visits each year, Follow through of that mandate depends upon the commitment of the teacher and the closeness of supervision. At first report time in the fall, several teachers extend an option to the parents to go to the home and go over their child's report card in some detail. Another teacher makes it her business to visit the home of each of her homeroom students early in the fall. In this way, she gets to know the home environment and in turn know the particular student better. That teacher also has had children over to her house for dinner in a systematic fashion. Her objective was to break down the stereotype that teachers exist only in the four walls of her classroom. The home visits were praised by some teachers and parents as being a great way of increasing communication and understanding between the home and the school. However, some teachers expressed reluctance to extend their working day by going out into the community either right after school or at night.

Parent Day.--Each spring since 1973, parents have been recruited to visit school and take over instruction for their particular teacher. The initiation of the idea came from the PAC. Participation in 1973 was evidently much better than in 1974. Parents were recruited and assigned by the community counselor. Approximately two parents participated in each classroom. In 1974, the district officials took a count of three hundred and eighty parents who participated district-wide in the program As might be expected, parents expressed a reluctance to completely take over the teaching role in the classroom. However, the program did serve to stimulate interest and participation between the home and school.

Open House.--Kenyatta Elementary School holds open house in the fall. In 1972, the open house was coordinated around making parents aware of the unit plan. Open houses are coordinated with each report card. Parents are welcomed and treated on an informal teacher to parent basis with little done in the way of formal programs and presentations. The overall objective of the program is to have a forum in which parents may talk informally with teachers, to get to know each other in a non-threatening manner.

Programs Specific to the District

An overall policy which is supported by district officials is that teachers and administrators are encouraged to live within the district's boundaries. Administrators feel that teachers will be able to feel more a part of the total community, as well as to complete the CFGE philosophy, and serve as role models for students in the community. This policy is obviously hard to enforce, and is more a policy position rather than an enforced rule.

Summer Programs.--Each year since 1967, a summer project has been run through the central office which has employed college students from the district to work with Bay City children in a variety of programs.

In the summer of 1973, a particularly well received program included a clean up program throughout the city of Bay City. The participation from students, teachers, and college students [illegible] was [illegible] an outcome of the program.

Block "Community" Learning Centers.—Two white parents are given credit for being the driving force behind learning centers set up on a block by block basis in the community. Ultimately, district officials would like to see one learning center every two blocks. These learning centers were the major areas where children stayed during the 1973 school boycott.

Follow-Through.—This is a national program for particularly disadvantaged youngsters which attempts to give homework and parental guidance in the homework for youngsters who have been designated as needing this type of guidance. There is an active follow-through program at Kenyatta.

Community-Family Forums.—Beginning in 1973, the district administrators began a series of forums at each school in which they encouraged parents to come and air their grievances to the district administration. Philosophically, this was an effort to bring participation closer to the people. It also was a concerted effort to get the message of CFGE to the people in a two-way manner of communication.

Questionnaire/Survey Instrumentation.—School officials at different times make use of survey instrumentation to assess feelings and attitudes of parents on a variety of issues. One example was the use of a survey which attempted to determine the need for and interest in an adult education program. The survey was sent home and returned by students.

Style of Conflict Resolution

District.—A review of the major conflict situations in the last five to eight years in Bay City reveal a pattern of influence at the district level by a group of committed individuals. The origin of the group was in the 1960s with the citizens reading program committee preceding Superintendent Major. That committee contained many of the key individuals who would emerge in leadership roles in the next five years. Major's master planning committee coincided with the emergence of the Board of Education caucus group. The caucus was formed to represent black interests, or the west of the freeway residents, as opposed to the east of the freeway residents.

There are two major conflicts which occurred from 1967 to 1974, Wayman's selection as superintendent in 1973 and the teachers' strike in 1974. The teachers' strike will be discussed later. Wayman's selection as superintendent, discussed earlier, is an excellent example of how a concerned group in the community marshalled their forces to sustain not only a one day school boycott, but also a demonstration at a board meeting with an estimated eight hundred participants.

At Kenyatta School-Community.—There were no significant issues during the period analyzed at Kenyatta Elementary School. One glimpse of what the style of resolution might be came from a few teachers. When asked if any parental problems had occurred as a result of the unit plan implementation, they said no, the parents who might have caused trouble were informed and had their questions answered. This would hint that there might be a few key individuals in the school-community. However, one other teacher summed up Kenyatta's parents by saying that so many of them work in a variety of jobs. Around 75-80% of the parents are happy if the report card indicates some sort of progress, their child is basically happy, and their child doesn't get beat up at school.

Issues

Professional Staff v. District Administration

There are several examples in the Bay City and Kenyatta experience which point to a serious rift between the district administration and the Bay City teachers.

Several teachers were upset at the manner in which the unit plan had been imposed on the district by administrative and board of education fiat. They were further angered by the lack of direction, in-service aid, and overall management of the implementation of the innovation. They felt that too much attention and public relations was given to CFGE and Bay City's unit plan.

Kenyatta Elementary School has had five principals in the last eight years. That kind of turnover results in the staff becoming more and more self-reliant. Experienced teachers at Kenyatta felt that the teachers really ran the school along with the principal's soft-handed guidance. The net result of strong teachers and a strong district administration push, was, of course, resentment and misunderstanding.

Extensive data was not gathered on the 1974 teachers' association strike. Teachers were out for a week's duration. The precipitant issues evidently included pay raises and other teacher oriented items. Teachers maintained that it solidified teachers into the teacher association. Several teachers mentioned that the strike was more a catharsis, a purging of wrongs which had been done on the teachers over the last few years. It must be mentioned in the context of the district administration/professional staff rift.

Finally, district administrators are quite open about their view that the school must be seen as the building block in community development. The public school is the largest employer in Bay City. They feel that it is the natural beginning point for community development. They would like to have teachers and administrators live in the district and participate in community affairs, go to church there and so on. Teachers, for the most part, simply do not share this view.

Parental Transiency

Many of the problems in the Bay City district and Kenyatta Elementary School from parental non-involvement and transiency. If there were more participation from the parents, several of the elements in CFGE would have greater credibility. However, parents in Bay City are, at least those in the west of the freeway area, poor. The men need to work two different jobs in several cases while the women may hold down a job as well. They don't have the time to get involved in school. They are highly supportive of what the school is trying to do for their youngsters, but many simply are not involved in the complete ramifications of CFGE.

Summary

A cynic might look at the Bay City and Kenyatta case history and describe it as a sham. An optimist might say that the groundwork is there for a truly different type of educational concept.

Implementation occurred because of a master planning committee which saw the multiunit school as the organizational part of school change. The unit plan became a much larger concept—CFGE—geared around community/parent/teacher cooperation in the overall direction of a child's development. The originators of the concept agree that CFGE is a beginning point, not in its final stages at all. But they are a committed group which will tenaciously pursue their goals, if substantial backlash doesn't hinder their path in the future. It will be an exciting process to observe.

CHAPTER IV*

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS REANALYZED

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS

SUMMARY

The four exploratory case studies presented in Chapter III were focused by the following four objectives:

1. To describe the implementation of IGE and home-school-community relations in selected IGE schools.
2. To explain the implementation of IGE and home-school-community relations programs and activities in a political framework using issue analysis and policy analysis.
3. To generate hypotheses from the data gathered through objectives one and two, and relate them to existing theories particularly the McCarty/Ramsey community typology, policy process, and Moynihan/McGivney zone of tolerance concept.
4. To generate practical recommendations for the public school audience.

The study's research design, methodology, and analysis are similar to others conducted in the Educational Administration Department at the

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*An earlier version of some of the analysis contained in this chapter appeared in a paper prepared for the AERA Annual Conference, April 3 entitled "Home-School-Community Relations As A Political Process: Four Exploratory Field Studies."

University of Wisconsin-Madison.[1] The goals of this exploratory research were to open a research dialogue on the political nature of elementary school-communities, the implementation process of Individually Guided Education, and the acceptance of change in the school-community environment. The review of the literature presented in Chapter I[2] revealed no consistent pattern of verifiable hypotheses in the research field. According to Kerlinger, exploratory case study research is an effective research tool to break new ground in a researchable area.[3]

The data presented in Chapter III will be analyzed according to the three conceptual frameworks presented in Chapter II[4]: (1.) community typology, (2.) policy process, and (3.) zone of tolerance. A later section to this chapter will reanalyze the conceptual frameworks in terms of possible verifiable hypotheses. The chapter will close with recommendations for practitioners and a summary.

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[1] See Joseph H. McGivney, "Politics of Vocational Education in Wisconsin, 1909-1967" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1967); Theodore H. Nicholson, "Influence Structure, Decision Making Process, and Compliance Structure of Nominated Issues Related to Collective Bargaining," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1967); Joseph C. Rost, "The Merger of the University of Wisconsin and the Wisconsin State University Systems: A Case Study In the Politics of Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1973); also Richard Moser, "The Politics of School/Community Relations: A puerto Rican Community (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1973).

[2] See Chapter I, pp. 1-63.

[3] Fred N. Kerlinger, FOUNDATIONS OF BEHAVIORAL RESEARCH (N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Second Edition, 1973), pp. 406-408.

[4] See Chapter II, pp. 67-76.

Community Typology

The various attempts at developing community typologies have been discussed in Chapter I.[5] The use of community typology as a conceptual framework was presented in Chapter II[6] as an exploratory attempt to devise political variance among the research sites. Initial designations of community power types, according to the McCarty/Ramsey model, were made in the form of working hypotheses. Data were then gathered during phase II and phase III of interviewing to support or alter the initial working hypotheses.

McCarty and Ramsey explored and verified a conceptual model stressing the interrelationships among superintendents, school boards, and communities in THE SCHOOL MANAGERS.[7] The typology included the following community types: (1) inert, (2) dominated, (3) pluralist, and (4) factional (see Figure 4-1). McCarty and Ramsey employed the model at the district level. This research adapted and refined the model for use at the school attendance level.

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[5] See Chapter I, pp. 4-20.

[6] See Chapter II, pp. 68-71.

[7] Donald J. McCarty and Charles E. Ramsey, THE SCHOOL MANAGERS (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Publishing Corporation, 1971).

FIGURE 4-1

McCARTY/RAMSEY MODEL

Community	Board	Superintendent
dominated community/	dominated board/	Functionary--Policy decisions will be controlled by an elite
factional community/	factional board/	Political Strategist--Policy decisions will be initiated and carried out by the majority.
pluralistic community/	status congruent board/	Professional Advisor--Policy decisions will be made by coalition formation.
inert community/	sanctioning board/	Decision Maker--Policy decisions will fall under the superintendent's aegis.

Each of the four cases will now be reanalyzed for community power designation with the following questions to serve as conceptual guides:

1.0 Community Typology

According to the McCarty/Ramsey model, what was the nature of the community power structure in each of the four home-school-community environments?

1.1 Who were the key actors in each home-school-community environment during the implementation of IGE?

1.2 What issues emerged during the implementation of IGE and how were they handled?

1.3 Were there any physical, demographic, or otherwise logical reasons for community power structure determination?

Inert School-Community: Rural City and Elm Hollow

The implementation of Individually Guided Education in Rural City solved two problems. Declining enrollments were causing longer bus routes, and the elementary principal saw IGE multi-unit elementary schools in his four-room rural schools as an organizational pattern to fill up the schools and shorten bus routes. Secondly, it was a promising innovation in the state and would satisfy the critics of the elementary school program and complete a mandate for "shaping up the elementary schools." That mandate had originated with a set of priorities left by the previous superintendent and influenced the selection of the new superintendent who would play a pivotal role in bringing IGE into Rural City.

Rural City is a center for large farm agriculture in a midwestern state. The city has a population of 2500 and serves as the nexus for three outlying crossroads, each of which has a four-room school. The high school implemented a modular schedule in the late 1960s and has attempted to develop a curriculum program to complement the organizational change, but the elementary schools were being criticized by progressive board members, including a forward thinking farmer, and the town physician, as being behind the times.

Individually Guided Education was introduced into the system through the superintendent. He encouraged the elementary principal and supervisor, as well as key school board members, to visit neighboring IGE schools. Then the superintendent brought in resource people during the spring semester to inservice staff prior to the first IGE school, Elm Hollow, opening the next fall. Staff at the pilot school had a trial run prior to the closing of the school in the spring. Bobbie Marco, the unit leader selected for Elm Hollow, was not only an excellent teacher and solidly behind IGE but also a life-long resident and well respected by the community. The other two rural school units were to operate in a traditional age-graded fashion. Children were selected for attendance at Elm Hollow on a geographic basis, but whether by happenstance or design, several board members' children as well as the mayor's children ended up attending the pilot school during its first year of IGE implementation.

Parents first read about IGE in the weekly newspaper, attended the last inservice session, and visited school prior to its opening in the fall. IGE was discussed by teachers and administrators in informal social settings at school; films or formal lectures were not utilized. Stress was laid on what was good for the child, and analogies were drawn to the rural, one-room school. Great trust was placed in the principal, supervisor, and unit leader, who besides being experienced, were lifelong residents and well-known in the community. One parent seemed to sum up opinions in this way: "Well, you're the educators, and if you say it's a good program it must be a good program." A sense of program acceptance seems to have emerged at the Education Week Open House in November.

The only concern of any importance emerged in Rosette when plans were announced that continuing IGE implementation meant busing their children away from Rosette to another school. The decision to re-organize the rural school centers and bus children across the district had been made jointly by the superintendent, the elementary principal, and the elementary supervisor. The problem at that particular rural center was handled interpersonally by the elementary principal and the board member who represented the area.

McCarty/Ramsey Framework: Inert School-Community

McCarty and Ramsey's Inert Community fits the stereotyped rural area. The inert section of their model is as follows:

Inert	Sanctioning	Superintendent as
Community	Board	Decision-Maker

Each of the parts of the model will be analyzed in greater detail to provide a sharper perspective to the efficacy of the model at the school attendance level.

The School-Community.—The case for Inert School-Community resting on a bed of trust and values congruent with their educators has already been made. However, the real test came when the rural area dissidents quite vociferously allowed that they would not go against the leadership of the board members who were in favor of the innovation and resultant busing and school reorganization. Moreover, it was unthinkable that any dissident would start a petition or run a candidate against the incumbent board member.

The Principal.—The model would suggest that administrator behavior would be that of a decision-maker. Decision-maker behavior was observed in this case when a significant decision was made to continue the IGE implementation and the mandated busing pattern and school attendance area reorganization. Consistently it was noted that administrators made key decisions with little of any need to involve the community. The administrators' decisions were valued and trusted in that environment.

The Intervening Board or Advisory Council.—Rural City does not have a functioning school-community PTA or advisory council at the elementary school level. School board membership was on a geographic basis, and each board member represented a school or area of the district. These board members seemed to act along the lines of sanctioning the direction of the superintendent and the elementary principal.

Key Actors.—One can see by analyzing Figure 4-2 that the key actors in the implementation of IGE in Rural City were positional in nature. The district superintendent initiated the sequence towards

FIGURE 4-2

INERT SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: RURAL CITY AND ELM HOLLOW ISSUES AND ACTORS

Actors--IGE Implementation	Position Influence Base	Values/ Goals	Position on IGE	Other Issues Involved in	Group Association
Dan Roridan	Supt. 7/71-6/72	"Shape up elem. schools"	Pro	None	Central Office
Ted Abbott	Supt. 7/72 to present	Continue implementation	Pro	All	Central Office
Norman Svenson	Elem. Principal	Shorten bus routes	Pro	All	Central Office
Rose Gethryn	Elem. Supervisor	no data	Pro	All	Central Office
Fred Trist	DPI Assistant	implement IGE	Pro	None	State D. P. I.
Rod Schmelzer	Board Member	Innovative	Pro	Rosette Vignette	Board of Education
Bobbie Marco	Elm Hollow Unit Leader	Innovative	Pro	Elm Hollow Implementation	Elm Hollow Unit Leader
Actors--Rosette Vignette/Bussing/ Reorganization					
Ted Abbott	Superintendent	Continued Implementation	Pro	All	Central Office
Norman Svenson	Elem. Principal	"	Pro	All	Central Office
Rose Gethryn	Elem. Supervisor	"	Pro	All	Central Office
Rod Schmelzer	Rosette Board Member	"	Pro		Board of Education
Disgruntled Rosette Parents (few)	Parents	Neighborhood School	Ques.	None	Rosette Parents

considering IGE in 1971. The superintendent who followed him, Ted Abbott, continued the management of the implementation effort. The elementary principal, Norman Svenson, and the elementary supervisor, Rose Gethryn, both played pivotal roles in terms of their knowledge of both the political realities of implementing an innovative program in Rural City and the parents and townspeople in Rural City. They involved the key people at the right time. For example, the elementary principal knew where and when to seek out the influentials in Rosette. They included parents in as many activities as possible. When discussing IGE, they recalled value sets to which the parents could refer to such as the one-room school and multi-aging, doing the most for your child and the IPM (diagnostic curriculum model), and better management through unit leaders. In addition, the unit leader excellently managed the implementation process at the school and insured a smooth running program.

Issues During Implementation.—No issues developed at Elm Hollow Elementary School during the implementation of IGE. The only issue which emerged, the Rosette Vignette, occurred during the extension of IGE in the Rural City District. The issue occurred more over the need for bussing and reorganization of the schools which would disrupt the neighborhood elementary school operation in Rosette. That problem was resolved by the elementary principal and the board of education member from Rosette, Rod Schmelzer. They simply pulled the few dissidents aside during the discussion period and allayed their concerns in a folksy manner.

Physical, Logical, Demographic Reasons for Inertness.--The demographic variables which were gathered for post factum description offered little of any substantive analytical power to the answering of this question.[8]

Factional School-Community: Kennedy Elementary School

The implementation of Individually Guided Education at Kennedy Elementary School followed a set of parents committed to an alternative elementary program who had visited the district's assistant superintendnet for elementary schools, gone to the district's successful IGE school, and like the program as well as the principal, and then served as the core of parents who would serve in leadership roles during the school's sometimes turbulent first two years.

College Town has a population of approximately fifty thousand, with no dominant industrial base, but an important rancher population. College Town's district encompasses some seventy thousand inhabitants (College Town plus substantial outlying regions) and has a history of educational innovation for the last fifteen years. They were among the first to implement an IGE program in the state.

Kennedy Elementary School-Community actually consists of three tracted suburban areas south of the city. The tracts are separated by two or three miles each, and the school is located in the middle tract area. An average difference of five to ten thousand dollars separates housing value in each of the three areas, and one might conclude that the parents range in age from young parents with young children to older parents with young as well as older children.

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[8] A detailed explanation of the demographic data and variables is included as an appendix to the dissertation. Sample data is included for Rural City which illustrates the global nature of the data and its lack of utility for analysis at the elementary school attendance level.

After the district selected the existing IGE school principal, Rod Althoff, to open Kennedy Elementary School, he carefully chose a younger, idealistic teaching staff. They voted to become an IGE school and sent their principal and unit leaders to a Principal/Unit Leader staff development session the spring prior to the fall school opening. They continued staff development during one week of unpaid work prior to the opening of school.

IGE was introduced to the parents at Kennedy Elementary School at a formal presentation in June which included an overview with a movie, a skit, a coffee hour, and time to chat informally. Parents late reported that the movie and skit were not well received. Some parents became involved the next fall in the school's parent advisory board and PTO and also served on an "Evaluation of Reporting Pupil Progress" committee which recommended scrapping the standard report card for a longer, criterion based checklist with comments. The principal initiated a vigorous set of home-school-community programs and activities during the first year of operation which capitalized on informal discussions and an open door policy to encourage parents to visit the school to observe the program and interact with teachers.

An overcrowding/boundary problem became acute by Christmas of the first year. After a heated discussion, the Parent Advisory Board squeezed two more teachers out of the assistant superintendent. A later solution to the overcrowding/boundary problem was a bus which would take children from Kennedy back to a more traditional school. This alleviated both the overcrowding and served as a "safety-valve" mechanism for those parents who wanted their children in a more traditional program. Seven parents pulled eleven children out the next fall, and that number increased to approximately twenty-five children by the second year of operation. strong elements of factionalism existed both in the separate attendance areas as well as among an unorganized group of more traditional parents who either moved or put their children on the bus to the more traditional school. Elements of jealousy and ill feeling also became generated towards the school during the second year of its operation from people outside the attendance area. They felt that the school and the IGE program was put on a pedestal and received special treatment from district personnel. A sense of acceptance seems to have emerged at the end of the first year of operation and could be documented by a PTO poll which showed seventy percent in favor of IGE, twenty-one percent in favor of a more traditional program, and nine percent feeling that all schools are the same.

McCarty/Ramsey Framework; Factional School-Community

McCarty and Ramsey's factional districts usually have some structural reason for factionalism in the community: one side of town versus another, black versus white, etc. The factional section of the model is as follows:

Factional Community	Factional Board	Superintendent as Political Strategist

The school board follows the leadership of the majority faction, and the superintendent has to be sure to stay attuned to the majority in control through skillful political maneuvering. Again, the three parts of the model will serve for closer analysis of the efficacy of the model at the school attendance level. Analysis is aided by having an intervening board between the community and the principal in Kennedy Elementary School-Community—a Parent Advisory Board.

The School-Community.—Kennedy School-Community had some structural reasons for their factionalism. The school served three distinct and tracted housing areas, was overcrowded, and boundary readjustments needed to be made. However, another element of factionalism was evident in the emergence of a "we/they" split in the parental community between those who favored the innovation and school program and those who favored a "more academic" program and made use of the bus to the more traditionally-oriented school. In many cases the more traditional school was the one to which their child had gone prior to the opening of Kennedy Elementary School. In addition, the parents who opted for the traditional alternative were often older and with older children who were academically successful, and their younger children were not as successful in school. The suggestion here is that factionalism definitely existed over the question of a scarce resource (Who was the school built for?), but factionalism could also be seen on a traditional-to-emergent values continua.

The Principal.--In the Kennedy Elementary School-Community the principal could be called a political strategist. Critical analysis indicates that the factional principal did act in that way. He worked with the parents who were interested in pursuing his type of program, attempted to appease those who did not, and finally supported a move to remove his opposition from the school by means of a bus. In the other major issue at Factional School-Community, the boundary question, the principal took a stance (he asked for an addition to the school) which was fiscally impossible, but politically adept. He alienated no one except the central office administrators by asking for an addition.

The Parent Advisory Board.--Several of the parents who served in leadership roles on both the Parent Advisory Board and the PTO during the first two years readily admitted that they wanted to see IGE be a success at Kennedy Elementary School. They were open about a "we/they" split in the community over the boundary issue and the academic quality of theprogram. During the first two years there was quite clearly a factional group which initiated and maintained support of IGE to the exclusion of others who might have been critical. One key Parent Advisory Board member summed up these feelings adequately when he said, "Yes, I heard that there were some who did not like IGE and who wanted to get elected to the Parent Advisory Board, and not only did my wife and I attend the organizational meeting, but we also got our friends out as well to thwart their efforts."

Key Actors.--One can see by analyzing Figure 4.3 that the key actors in the Kennedy Elementary School home-school-community environment were a combination of individuals in positions of formal authority and also individuals in positions of informal authority. The individuals in positions of formal authority—the principal, Rod Althoff, the superintendent, Alan Trayne, the assistant superintendent for elementary schools, Tom Forrest—became opponents during the implementation issues. The principal took the side of his building teachers, the Kennedy Klan, and the parents, and campaigned actively on their behalf leaving the so called "administrative team". The individuals in informal positions of authority, the Rikopos, Antoinettes, and Trumans in particular, were the key parents who first pushed for an alternative program of instruction at the new school. They very clearly banded together because of like value systems. They, in turn, became the nexus for parental support for the school in its first two rocky years.

Issues During Implementation.—There were two more important issues which developed during the implementation process, though more are summarized on Figure 4.3 The overcrowding/boundary dispute very clearly involved all of the parents who had children attending Kennedy Elementary School and the central office personnel as well. Information was the most important component of the boundary problem. Enrollment projections were done by the Antoinettes and the Parent Advisory Board/PTO joint committee which served as the data base for the ultimate decision. The second issue of major importance was the rift which developed between the Kennedy Klan (a term which includes both teachers and parents

FIGURE 4-3

FACTIONAL SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ISSUES AND ACTORS

Actors	Influence/ Position Base	Values/Goals	Position on IGE	Other Issues Involved In	Group Association
IGE IMPLEMENTATION					
Rod Althoff	Principal	Innovative, Pro Individualized Instruction	Pro	All	Kennedy Principal
Tom Forrest	Ass't, Supt., Elementary	Maintain Central Office Power	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Sherry Rikopos	Pres. PAB	Alternative/Open Education	Pro	All	Kennedy Parent
Ben Truman	Member PAB	Alternative/Open Education	Pro	All	Kennedy Parent
Joan Benedict	Early Pusher For IGE	Alternative/Open Education	Pro	None, moved away	Kennedy Parent
Alan Trayne	Ramosa Supt.	Maintain Central Office Power	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Antoinettes	PTO Pres. 1973-74		Pro	Boundary	Kennedy Parent
Karys	PTO Pres. 1974-75		Pro	Boundary	Kennedy Parent
Pat Douglas	Ass't. Supt, Curriculum	Support Innovation	Pro	None	Central Office

FIGURE 4-3

FACTIONAL SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ISSUES AND ACTORS

Actors	Influence Position Base	Values/Goals	Position on IGE	Other Issues Involved In	Group Association
OVERCROWDING/ BOUNDARY DISPUTE					
Rod Althoff	Principal	Build On	Pro	All	Kennedy Principal
Tom Forrest	Ass't, Supt,	Bus Out	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Alan Trayne	Superintendent	Bus Out	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Antoinettes	PTO President	Freeze & Alleviate	Pro	All	Kennedy Parent
Trumans	PAB members	Build On	Pro	All	Kennedy Parent
Marvin Dudley	Admin, Ass't.	No Data	No Data	None	Central Office
LOSS OF STATE AID/ CUTTING TEACHERS/ MERIT PAY FOR AIDES					
Rod Althoff	Principal	Pro Teachers	Pro	All	Kennedy Principal
Alan Trayne	Superintendent	Maintain Central Office Power	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Kennedy Klan	Teachers	Pro Teachers	Pro	All	Kennedy Teachers

FIGURE 4-3

FACTIONAL SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ISSUES AND ACTORS

Actors	Influence Position Base	Values/Goals	Position on IGE	Other Issues Involved In	Group Association
Art Teacher	Teacher's Association	Pro Teachers	No Data	None	Kennedy Teachers
Unit Leader	Teacher's Association	Pro Teachers	No Data	None	Kennedy Teachers
CENTRAL OFFICE/ KENNEDY TENSION					
Rod Althoff	Principal	Establish and Maintain loyalty to Kennedy	Pro	All	Kennedy Principal
Alan Trayne	Superintendent	Establish and Maintain Central Office Power	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Pat Douglas	Ass't. Supt. Curriculum	Support Innovation	Pro	IGE Implementation	Central Office
Tom Forrest	Ass't. Supt. Elementary	Support Central Office	Ambivalent	All	Central Office
Kennedy Klan	Teachers & Parents	Loyalty to Kennedy	Pro	All	Kennedy Teachers & Parents

at Kennedy) and the central office. This issue was a complex one made deeper by petty jealousies. At its heart, however, was a question of power, the ability to make influence felt.

Physical, Logical, or Demographic Reasons for Factionalism.--The outcome of the demographic variables has already been discussed in the Inert case and readers are referred to Appendix of the dissertation for an explanation. The three tracted housing areas were indeed reasons for factionalism. When efforts were being made to realign the boundaries to alleviate overcrowding, factionalism developed among the three areas. Petitions sprouted up, and spokesmen developed for the three particular areas. Parents in the three areas were, in effect, competing for a scarce resource—their neighborhood school--and they were very concerned over the resolution of that issue.

Pluralist School-Community: Woodrow Wilson Elementary School

Implementation of Individually Guided Education at Woodrow Wilson Elementary School came through the efforts of a dynamic principal who followed a rather old-style educator. Parents in Woodrow Wilson Elementary Schools' attendance area were demanding a program which was more accountable for measuring students' academic growth, and they fostered a change climate which the dynamic principal capitalized upon.

The suburban community is near the capitol and contains a large number of government employees. It is a very affluent area and among the top per capita income levels in the country. At least half of the families sending children to Woodrow Wilson Elementary School work in

Government-related jobs. The parental population is characterized as having a base of long-time residents, along with a group of two to three-year residency transients. The parents are politically adept and would think nothing of cutting through the middle layer of bureaucracy with a well-placed phone call to the decision-maker.

The district is among the most progressive in the country. They annually spend half a million dollars on staff development alone. The district also uses change teams of experienced team leaders and supervisors to enter a school and work at individualizing instruction with the staff for a period of at least two weeks. The older principal had called in the change team for one of these sessions in the fall. A member of the change team, Shirley Lee, was named assistant principal in charge of instruction at that time. Mrs. Lee worked with the older principal until the latter's retirement in the spring. IGE represented a more efficient and effective organizational pattern around which an objective-based curriculum and team teaching could be arranged. For critical parents it represented a means to gain more school accountability. The staff agreed to the direction of IGE; some attempted to participate in IGE training that summer at their own expense. The staff received special training from R & D Center personnel the fall prior to school's opening. Key parents from the Parent Advisory Committee attended as well. The implementation effort was aided by being awarded a state grand the second year and a "pilot school" designation which would use the IGE program to facilitate the instruction of children with learning disabilities.

A few key parents knew the IGE program well, but to the majority of parents the IGE label was soft-pedaled and emphasis was given to what the school was doing for the children. The principal used informal coffees each month to aggressively sell the IGE program and handle any questions from parents. Those most critical of the previous principal and the school's program now served on a Parent Advisory Committee. Parents were encouraged to come to school and work as volunteer aides. Acceptance was probably gained soon among many parents who were anxious for a change in school program, but became assured with the impressive gains in reading and math scores as a result of the implementation of the state grant during the Wilson School's second year of operation.

McCarty/Ramsey Framework: Woodrow Wilson School-Community

McCarty and Ramsey's Pluralist configuration resembles the textbook case of the suburban district with well educated parents who elect a concerned board of education which in turn operates with a professional advisor type of superintendent. In summary, their model appears in this way:

Pluralist	Status Congruent	Professional
Community	Board	Advisor

The School-Community.—The case for pluralism in the Wilson School-Community rests on ad hoc groups of issue-oriented parents. The parents who served on the Parent Advisory Committee were not the ones who were part of other ad hoc groups. Groups and parental influece arose with the issue, then, and were not part of any overall scheme of dominance or factionalism.

The Principal.—In Woodrow Wilson School-Community, the principal did act somewhat as a professional advisor in that she marshalled coalitions through the PTA and her Parent Advisory Council. However, the McCarty/Ramsey model might need some readjustments here, given the autonomous role of the building principal versus the dependence of the superintendent on the school board for guidance and policy direction. One is hard pressed to imagine a building administrator who could advise rather than direct school administration. Thus, a professional director rather than advisor might fit the data more correctly than the term "advisor."

The Parent Advisory Committee.—Membership on the Parent Advisory Committee was solicited on a representational basis. People were on the committee not only because of interest but also due to geographic and philosophical bases. This group, plus the PTA leadership, could serve to work with and mold parental opinion.

Key Actors.—One can see by analyzing figure 4.4 that the key actors were positional in nature. The principal, Shirley Lee, served to develop leadership thrust at the school with central office support. She implemented IGE with a mandate for accountable student growth from the parents. Several of the parents active for educational change were in positions of leadership in the Parent Advisory Committee or the PTO.

Issues During Implementation.—There were no substantive issues discerned during the implementation of IGE at Woodrow Wilson Elementary

FIGURE 4-4

PLURALIST SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: WOODROW WILSON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ISSUES AND ACTORS

Actors	Influence/ Position Base	Values/Goals	Position on IGE	Other Issues Involved In	Group Association
IGE IMPLEMENTATION					
Shirley Lee	Principal	Implement Innovative Program	Pro	All	Woodrow Wilson Principal
PTA President	1971-1972	Accountable Student Growth	Pro	All	PTA
Area Supt.		Support Innovation	Pro	All	County Area Office
Wis. R & D Implementation Personnel		Service Wilson's Needs	Pro	None	Wis. R & D
Parent Advisory Council	Elected on Rep. Basis from PTA		Pro	All	Wilson Parents
RENOVATION					
Shirley Lee	Principal	Support Renovation	Pro	All	Principal
Sub. Principal		Pro Flexible Space	Pro	None	Sub. Principal
Area Supt.		Support Renovation	Pro	All	County Area Office
Teachers		Support Renovation	Pro	---	Wilson Teachers
Some Parents		Question Flexible Space	Ambivalent	---	Wilson Parents

School. The only issue of major importance, the renovation program, came after the implementation of IGE.

Physical, Logical, or Demographic Reasons for Pluralism.—Demographic data supplied in Appendix of the dissertation includes sample data for the county and the tracts which encompass the Woodrow Wilson attendance area. They serve as an excellent example of the grossness of the demographic data and its unuseability at the school-attendance area level. There may be a relationship between the level of income, the level of education, and pluralism of Woodrow Wilson Elementary School. However, analysis of these relationships was not made possible by the demographic data involved.

Dominated School-Community: Kenyatta Elementary School

Individually Guided Education became known as the unit plan in this predominantly black, lower socioeconomic area located in a suburban setting near a major western city. A district master planning committee had been searching for an organizational pattern which would individualize instruction for its youngsters. The committee visited multi-unit schools in Wisconsin and Oregon in the late 1960s.

Dominated community is an area which has seen a shift in community population and school board leadership from white to black in the last ten years. A group of influential businessman and educators formed an informal caucus which promoted school board candidates beginning in 1967. The current superintendent of schools got his job through community demonstrations of support after a lame duck board had attempted to appoint another black educator from outside the district.

The current superintendent and a bright, energetic college teacher of education merged an East African cultural awareness of the extended family into the multi-unit school concept and called it "Community-Family Guided Education." Their long-term goals were to break down the professional lock on the education of children by including parents as decision-makers at the unit, Instructional Improvement Committee, and mini-board levels. This program, in turn, was oriented to serve as a community development vehicle to hlep bring the black families out of the culture of poverty. Client control of school services was seen as the means through which blacks would find legitimacy in their educational institutions.

The district Kenyatta Elementary School as their target school for implementation of the unit plan. The Title III center had lost funding, and the schools suffered from a lack of staff development leadership. During its first year Kenyatta Elementary School had two units of ten teachers each. Teachers in the upper unit decided among themselves that the units were too large, and split them into two units for the next year. Very little was done with parents the first year. Teachers recalled only a few telephone calls from parents who wanted more information about their child's placement. During the second year of operation, they had an open house in which they explained the concept to parents. Attendance was not outstanding. Several men in the community work two different jobs and their wives may work as well. This made it difficult for parents to become involved in school affairs. That reason may also be the key to understanding why the decision-making modes for parents at the unit, Instructional Improvement Committee, and mini-board levels were not well attended. Teachers felt that there was a credibility gap from what the ideal view of Community-Family Guided Education was and how it was actually functioning at Kennedy Elementary School. However, the leaders of the innovation readily admitted that there was a gap between the ideal and real but that Community-Family Guided Education should be seen as a long term rather than an immediate innovation.

There were no major issues in Kenyatta's school-community, and dominance was not perceived at that school-community level, though the district was clearly dominated by a few key individuals. A sense of acceptance was probably not important in Kenyatta's school-community, but those parents to whom it did make a difference were handled by informal discussion during the second year of implementation.

McCarty/Ramsey Framework: Dominated School-Community

McCarty and Ramsey's dominated school disrict represents the stereotypical mill town where all efforts need to be coordinated through a clique of controlling participants. The dominated section of the model appears in this way:

Dominated	Dominated	Functionary
Community	Board	Superintendent

The School-Community.—The quiescent nature of the school-community and working patterns of the parents has been documented. One teacher expressed what may be the typical attitude of the parents by relating a conversation with a parent who said that they (the parents) were "grateful for all the teachers could do for their child because the child was already more educated than the parents, and how could we (the parents) begin to work alongside the teachers in prescribing an educational program."

The Principal.--The principal was hired by and maintained close ties with the controlling elite at the district level. He went along with their programs and schemes and, in turn, received support from the central office and the board. He should not be viewed strictly as a functionary, but certainly responsive to the programs of the dominant group at the district level. However, at the school level, he clearly ran the show and generated the local thrust for the educational program.

The Parent Advisory Board and the Mini-Board.--The mechanisms exist in Kenyatta School-Community for dominance to be achieved by a select group of parents. Title requirements mandate a Parent Advisory Board, and the Board of Education has set up what they call mini-boards to which they would like to extend discretionary power over budget and personnel. A committed elite could easily gain control of these mechanisms shoudl the issues or the times prove propitious. At this point, there has been little interest shown by the parents in participating in these groups.

Key Actors.--IGE very clearly was brought into Bay City by a small group of individuals committed to bringing about change in the district. However, the actors at the school level are minimized in Bay City. One reason is that the original principal has left the district. The other reason is that the school was selected by the central office group as a

FIGURE 4-5

DOMINATED SCHOOL-COMMUNITY; KENYATTA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ISSUES AND ACTORS

Actors	Position/ Influence Base	Goals/Values	Position on IGE	Other Issues Involved In	Group Association
IGE IMPLEMENTATION					
Jack Major	Supt, 1968-72	Support Innovation And Planning	Pro		Central Office
Marvin Wayman	Supt, 1972-Present	Support and Co-Author CFGE	Pro	Teachers vs. District Admin.	Central Office
Herbert Lincoln	Board member 1968-1975	Support Innovation	Pro		Board of Education
Dr. DuBois	Consultant to District	CFGE Originator	Pro		Central Office
Robert Drowner	Title III Planner	Support Innovation State IGE	Pro		Title III
Mr. Kurl	Principal 1971-72	Ineffective at Implementing IGE	Pro		Kenyatta Principal
Sam Mitte	Principal, 1972-Present		Pro		Kenyatta Principal
PROFESSIONAL STAFF vs. DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION					
Marvin Wayman	Supt.		Pro		Central Office
Herbert Lincoln	Board President		Pro		Board of Ed.
Central Office Aministrator			Pro		Central Office
Teachers' Association			Questioning		Teachers

as a pilot school. The origination of the idea did not come from the school personnel, rather it came down from the central office administrators.

Issues During Implementation.—No issues developed at the school level during the implementation of IGE. Teachers became upset two years or so after the implementation effort over the amount of publicity that Community-Family Guided Education received, but that was clearly after implementation had ceased. The only other issue of major importance occurred at the central office level between the district administration and the teachers. That issue was a simple one of values and power with a teachers' strike as the manifest example of the struggle.

Physical, Logical, or Demographic Reasons for Domination.—Domination was not detected at the school attendance level. It was perceived at the district level, and several factors might enter into that analysis. However, that question is outside this research design.

Policy Process

The political variance suggested by the McCarty/Ramsey model would seem to indicate that communities would vary in the policy processes of accepting the innovation. Other conceptual frameworks were considered, but they each seemed to be intra-organizationally oriented[9] and took little account of the total environment.

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[9] See Chapter I, pp. 31-43.

The four-phased policy process seemed to offer some recognition of the environmental factors of a school organization. Policy process is an accepted framework in legislative policy analysis and offered possibilities for adaptation in the analysis of acceptance of innovations at the local level. The fourth section of the policy process, namely legalization, was changed to "acceptance."[10] The reason for this change is that legalization represented much harder connotations than did acceptance. Field experiences showed that parents might accept program innovation but would not respond with the certainty and finality that legalization seemed to imply. The four phases of the policy process for this research are as follows:

1. Initiation. When, who, and how was the IGE concept presented to the principal/staff, individual school unit, and when, who, and how was the IGE concept presented to the home-school community environment?

2. Information. What were the types and styles of information flow which spanned the home-school-community environment prior to and during the first year of implementation.

3. Accommodation. What processes, from rational search through persuasion, bargaining, and powerplay wereused to resolve actual or potential conflict over the implementation of the program? The result of this process would appear in a modification of the original programmatic objectives of the school.

4. Acceptance. The consensual agreement among the actors that IGE has been accepted in the home-school-community environment.

Each of the four case studies will no be reanalyzed using the policy process acceptance pattern with the following questions to serve as conceptual guides:

2.0 Policy Process

What was the nature of the policy process acceptance pattern of IGE in the four politically different home-school-community environments?

2.1 What was the point of initiation for IGE in the home-school-community environment?

2.2 What was the manner of information about IGE from school to home and community?

2.3 What were the points of accommodation regarding IGE implementation?

2.4 When was IGE accepted among the home-school-community actors?

2.5 What was the relationship between the McCarty/Ramsey community power structure determination and the policy process in each of the four home-school-community environments?

Policy Process: Rural City and Elm Hollow

The policy process was readily apparent for analysis in Rural City (see Figure 4-6). The initiation effort worked because of the inducement of a problematic state—"Shaping up the elementary schools." Efforts to solve that problem focused on observing visible and tangible demonstrations of IGE rather than reading about the concept or listening to speakers, for example.

The information phase contained both articles in the local weekly newspaper and attendance at teacher inservice sessions as well. Key board members and community influentials were encouraged to become familiar with the innovation through real life situations: attending inservice sessions, talking with others, etc. One board member may have been particularly influential because he was a member of the "town

FIGURE 4.6

INERT SCHOOL COMMUNITY; RURAL CITY AND ELM HOLLOW

POLICY PROCESS ACCEPTANCE PATTERN

INITIATION (June, 1971)

Problematic state introduced by existing superintendent. New superintendent told to "shape up elementary schools," (Fall, 1971) Principal, supervisor and key board members visit IGE schools.

INFORMATION (Spring, 1972)

School-community learns through newspaper, then attendance at inservice sessions.

ACCOMMODATION (February, 1973)

None visible and tangible at school level. Parents are persuaded to have children bused to other schools,

ACCEPTANCE (November, 1972)

Parents at Elm Hollow are pleased by end of first marking period.

crowd" social set, including the town physician and others, as well as having credibility with the farmers in his rural area.

The accommodation process included both rational search and persuasion processes. The only possible difficulty rested in the need for school attendance area reorganization and cross district bussing. Resolution of that issue had been by persuasion by the influential board member and the elementary principal.

Acceptance occurred early in the first year of implementation at the pilot school, as has been pointed out earlier. It seems important to emphasize that though parents might have trusted the educators who implemented the program, the fact that their children came home happy and unconfused seems to have been the important factor in acceptance.

McCarty/Ramsey Model and Policy Process.—One might expect that in an inert school-community IGE would be accepted in a manner which included emphasis on shared values—the analogy of the one-room schoolhouse to IGE multi-aging—and trust in administrators. Great reliance among home-school-community actors was made not on data or expertise, rather the reliance was placed upon informal, two-way communication and involvement activities involving long-term residents and friends who knew one another. There seems to be a direct relationship between the nature of the inert community and the policy process acceptance in Elm Hollow and Rural City.

Policy Process; Kennedy Elementary School

Initiation of IGE at Kennedy Elementary School began as a search for an alternative type of program for the school prior to its completion (see Figure 4-7). It was facilitated through the central office and the existing IGE school.

Information to the parents at Kennedy Elementary School came in the form of a movie and skit in June as well as through less formal discussions the following fall by having parents meet in their respective units. The small group discussions were each coordinated by members of the Parent Advisory Board whic, in turn, was made up of the committed minority of parents who had initiated the search for an alternative program in the beginning.

Accommodation very clearly occurred in two ways, bargaining and rational search. Partly as a means of alleviating the overcrowding, but also to allow parents who were unhappy with the insturctional program, a one-way bus was offered for the second year of implementation away from Kennedy Elementary School back to a more traditional school which several of the children had attended before Kennedy was built. It was a one-way bus in that students from outside the attendance area were not allowed to be bused into the school; only the children of the disgruntled parents were bused out. The bargaining element appears quite clearly in the way in which the final solution was achieved at a special Board of Education meeting. Regarding the rational search process, parents also provided data in the form of a survey at the end of the first year of implementation which indicated that noise and discipline were chief concerns. The PTO provided money for barriers to be built between the pods over the summer so that the second year of implementation would be less hectic.

FIGURE 4-7

FACTIONAL SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

POLICY PROCESS ACCEPTANCE PATTERN

INITIATION (November, 1971)

IGE already existed in the district, and a concerned parental group initiated a request for an alternative program for their new elementary school.

INFORMATION (Spring, 1972 to fall, 1972)

Parents maintain that when they heard of the principal selection (the principal in the existing IGE school) they knew it would be an IGE school, but the staff voted (spring, 1972) to "go" IGE and then had parents in for a formal presentation. Units met their parents the following fall to talk informally about the program.

ACCOMMODATION (Fall, 1973)

Staff, using PTO money, built barriers between the pods prior to school's opening the second year, partly in response to a survey which indicated that discipline and noise were the biggest problems. A bus was provided, partly to alleviate the overcrowding, and also to allow those parents unhappy with the program to take their children to a more traditional program.

ACCEPTANCE (Spring, 1973)

A PTO poll indicated that 70 percent of those returned (60 percent return rate) were happy with the IGE program.

Acceptance can be documented by a PTO poll conducted in the spring of the first year of IGE implementation which concluded that of those returned (60 percent return rate) seventy percent of the parents were happy with IGE. However, acceptance was also aided by the one-way bus solution to the bussing/overcrowding dispute which allowed parents to send their children back to the more traditional schools they formerly attended. This safety-valve mechanism certainly gave unhappy parents a means to exit gracefully from the school and also allowed parents and educators at Kennedy a freer environment to continue implementing IGE.

McCarty/Ramsey Model and Policy Process.—One would expect open conflict and debate over substantive issues in a factional community. This clearly occurred in the implementation of IGE at Kennedy Elementary School. There were three camps in the Kennedy Elementary School Home-School-Community environment: (1.) a minority of parents committed to an alternative form of elementary school education, (2.) the majority of parents in-between with no hard opinions, (3.) those parents unhappy with the program who transferred their children out of school. There seems to be a direct relationship between the McCarty/Ramsey determination and the policy process acceptance pattern in Kennedy Elementary School.

Policy Process: Woodrow Wilson Elementary School

Initiation of IGE occurred through Shirley Lee, the new principal, and not through the central office as it did in the other three case studies (see Figure 4-8). A problematic state had been induced by parents

FIGURE 4-8

PLURALIST SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: WILSON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

POLICY PROCESS ACCEPTANCE PATTERN

INITIATION (Spring, 1971)

New, change-oriented principal reads about IGE and attends awareness conference. She passes written material along to staff.

INFORMATION (Fall, 1971)

Some parents in school-community are vociferous about the need for more accountability in terms of pupil progress and accessibility of their child's educational program; several of those parents named to Parent Advisory Committee to help guide the new dynamic principal. Key parents attend staff inservice prior to school's opening, and general parent population informed through school coffees and Back to School nights in the fall.

ACCOMMODATION (Spring, 1972)

Designation as a Pilot School and the awarding of a state grant for study of IGE as a resource model helps complete implementation with additional monies for clerical aides and curriculum products. Math and reading made the primary focus of the instructional program.

ACCEPTANCE (Spring, 1973)

Impressive gains in test scores satisfy the school accountability critics and definitely give a sense of legitimacy to the IGE program as a means to gain student academic achievement.

demanding accountable student growth. Shirley Lee, the change-oriented principal, became interested in IGE because it fit with the thrust of the district in terms of individualizing instruction through team teaching and an objectives based curriculum.

Information was supplied in written form to the staff. Key parents in the PTA leadership and Parent Advisory Committee were involved in the school's preservice staff training sessions. Information was continued through informal coffees and unit meetings with parents during the fall semester. Emphasis was placed on informing the key parents who were members of the PTA leadership and the Parent Advisory Committee before informing the total parental population.

Accommodation did not occur with any change in programmatic intent as a result of backlash in parent opinion, as occurred in the Factional School-Community, Kennedy Elementary School. Rather, accommodation occurred in that the principal and staff were unhappy with the lack of completeness to the IGE staffing pattern and were also unhappy with their abilities to meet the needs of all students. No data was gathered on whether parents were demanding better student achievement scores because of the implementation of IGE. Moreover, that does not seem to be the overt case. The designation of the school as a pilot school with additional state monies did serve to complete the implementation of IGE, bring more resources into the school, more nearly meet the needs of all the children and provide statistical data for academic achievement.

Acceptance might be difficult to discover in a pluralistic community without survey research data. Some parents probably liked the crispness of the IGE organizational pattern and readily saw how the objectives-based curriculum would supply them with data for accountability purposes. However, in this case, it seems likely that parents did not really accept the program until they had statistical proof that their children were achieving under the new system. That proof was readily available in the form of standardized test scores from evaluation of the pilot program in the spring of the second year of IGE implementation.

McCarty/Ramsey Model and Policy Process.--One might expect that in a pluralist community there would be pockets or groups responsive to particular issues. The exact number of parents in Affluent suburb who were anxious to depose the retiring principal in favor of a change-oriented principal was very hard to trace and document. Attempts were made in the field work and estimates vary from ten to forty or fifty. The important realization is that this group dissolved when its demands were met. Information processes about IGE were geared to satisfy this group first and then go to the general parental population. Acceptance is hard to document, as discussed above. But in a pluralist environment, acceptance meant satisfying the demands for accountability among the PTA/PAC leaders and demonstrating student achievement through standardized test scores. In the absence of statistical survey data, the evidence of shifting centers of power type of social fabric in Woodrow Wilson Elementary School gives credence to a direct relationship between McCarty/Ramsey determination and the policy process acceptance pattern in the pluralist home-school-community environment.

Policy Process: Kenyatta Elementary School

IGE was brought into the district by a central office planning thrust which centered on the multi-unit school as the means to individualize instruction (see Figure 4-9). IGE met the needs of a "better" educational program and the black cultural awareness vehicle of Community-Family Guided Education.

Information first flowed through the central office to the collective elite around the board of education and the caucus which supported the board and the superintendent. It flowed down to Kenyatta Elementary School when it was selected as a pilot school. The central office group told Kenyatta that it was going to be a pilot school. There was no evidence of staff inclusion in the decision.

Accommodation occurred within the school, but probably not as a result of parental involvement. Changes were made in the original intent of the innovation with different team makeups and the addition of released time for planning. The IGE program and the multi-unit school, in effect, went "public" with the advent of the Community-Family Guided Education thrust from the central office group in 1972-73.

Acceptance carries many meaning with it in a dominated environment. In this case, the possible critics were handled first through telephone calls and interpersonal communication in the first year, and again at the Back to School Night the second year. Acceptance probably meant a child coming home happy with his instructional program, not confused or bewildered by changing teachers or new jargon.

FIGURE 4-9

DOMINATED SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENYATTA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

POLICY PROCESS ACCEPTANCE PATTERN

INITIATION (1968-1970)

A concerned group of parents at the district level hire an Afro-American superintendent, the first in the state, to begin a systematic change process. His master planning committee visits and views several alternatives over a two year period, but finally focuses on the multi-unit school as a viable alternative.

INFORMATION (1971-1973)

In this case, information should be looked upon first as a district prerogative, and later at the school level. Little was done outside the leadership clique to make others aware at the district level of the multi-unit school and its emerging implications which resulted in Community Family Guided Education. Staff did little at the pilot school during the first year of implementation, 1971-1972, to report to parents. Some parents may have known about the innovation through working at the school in a support fashion. During the school's second year of implementation, they attempted to hold unit meetings for parents during parent conference time, but attendance was poor.

ACCOMMODATION (1972-1973)

Teachers realized at the end of their first year that a ten member unit was too large, and broke it into two five member units based on personalities. Student movement, particularly in the intermediate unit, was shortened after diagnosis of the situation revealed that it may have excited the children too much.

ACCEPTANCE (1972-1973)

Teachers reported that some influential parents telephoned during the first year of implementation to ask about student placement. The parents who could make trouble, according to teachers, were at the fall, 1972 Back to School parent/unit meetings and had their questions answered. The mass of parents were probably happy when they realized that their children were happy with their instructional program.

McCarty/Ramsey Model and Policy Process.—Evidence was not found to support the McCarty/Ramsey dominated categorization in the Kenyatta Home-School-Community Environment.[10] The vehicle for domination—school programs like the mini-boards, PAC, and parents in on unit meetings—existed but parents were not participating to any extent in the programs. However, the district shows evidence of domination. If it were to be analyzed at the district level, the policy process acceptance pattern fits the dominated model with information flow through the elite and so on. However, analysis at the home-school-community level breaks down at this point because of lack of domination at the school-attendance area level.

Zone of Tolerance

The political variance of the school-communities from the McCarty/Ramsey conceptual framework suggested that school-community environments would accept or be tolerant of innovations in different ways. Zone of tolerance seemed to be a useful concept in educational research literature to capture and crystallize the school, the home, and the larger community in the analysis of change acceptance.

Moynihan and McGivney define the zone of tolerance as "the latitude or area of maneuverability granted (or yielded) to the leadership of the schools by the local community." Figure 4-10 shows the community and

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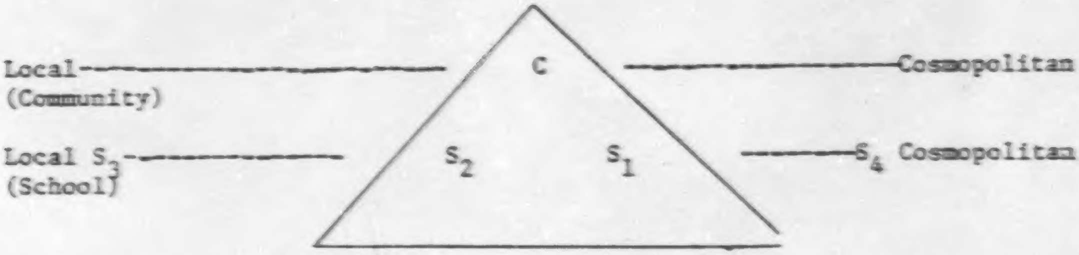
[11] Joseph H. McGivney and William Moynihan "School and Community," Teachers College RECORD Vol. 74, No. 2 (December, 1972), p. 221.

school in harmony, but also shows how School S_3 may be behind the values and norms of the community and S_4 would be ahead of the values and norms.

FIGURE 4-10

Zone of Tolerance



Moynihan and McGivney discuss the possible variance in acceptance patterns from communities described in the literature. Vidich and Bensman's Springdale[12], for example, would have a zone of tolerance different from Iannaccone and Lutz's Robertsdale[13], and so on.

The McCarty/Ramsey conceptual framework provided political variance and, in turn, suggested different patterns for the promotion and acceptance of innovations. A pluralist school-community environment would accept a change effort in a way different from that of inert school-community. One might expect that trust and respect for the views of educators would play a much greater role in an inert school-community in closing the zone of tolerance than they would in an affluent, highly educated pluralist school-community.

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[12] Arthur Vidich and Joseph Bensman, SMALL TOWN IN MASS SOCIETY (Princeton: Princeton University Press, Revised Edition, 1968).

[13] Laurence Iannaccone and Frank W. Lutz, POLITICS, POWER AND POLICY (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1970).

The following exploratory questions helped guide the data collection and analysis of the zone of tolerance:

3.0 Zone of tolerance

What was the nature of the zones of tolerance in each of the four home-school-community environments?

3.1 What was the latitude given to the educational leaders for the implementation of IGE?

3.2 What was the relationship between the McCarty/Ramsey community structure determination and the zone of tolerance in each of the four home-school-community environments?

In order to tighten the conceptualization of the zone of tolerance the continuum from local to cosmopolitan was sectioned off into four quarters by the use of ' marks on the continuum. This sectioning helped the conceptual analysis by suggesting a tighter degree of variance in the zone of tolerance than the way in which it was initially conceived by Moynihan and McGivney. In addition, the zone of tolerance was placed into three of the policy process phases: Initiation, Information and Accommodation, and Acceptance--to integrate the research design and contribute explanatory power.

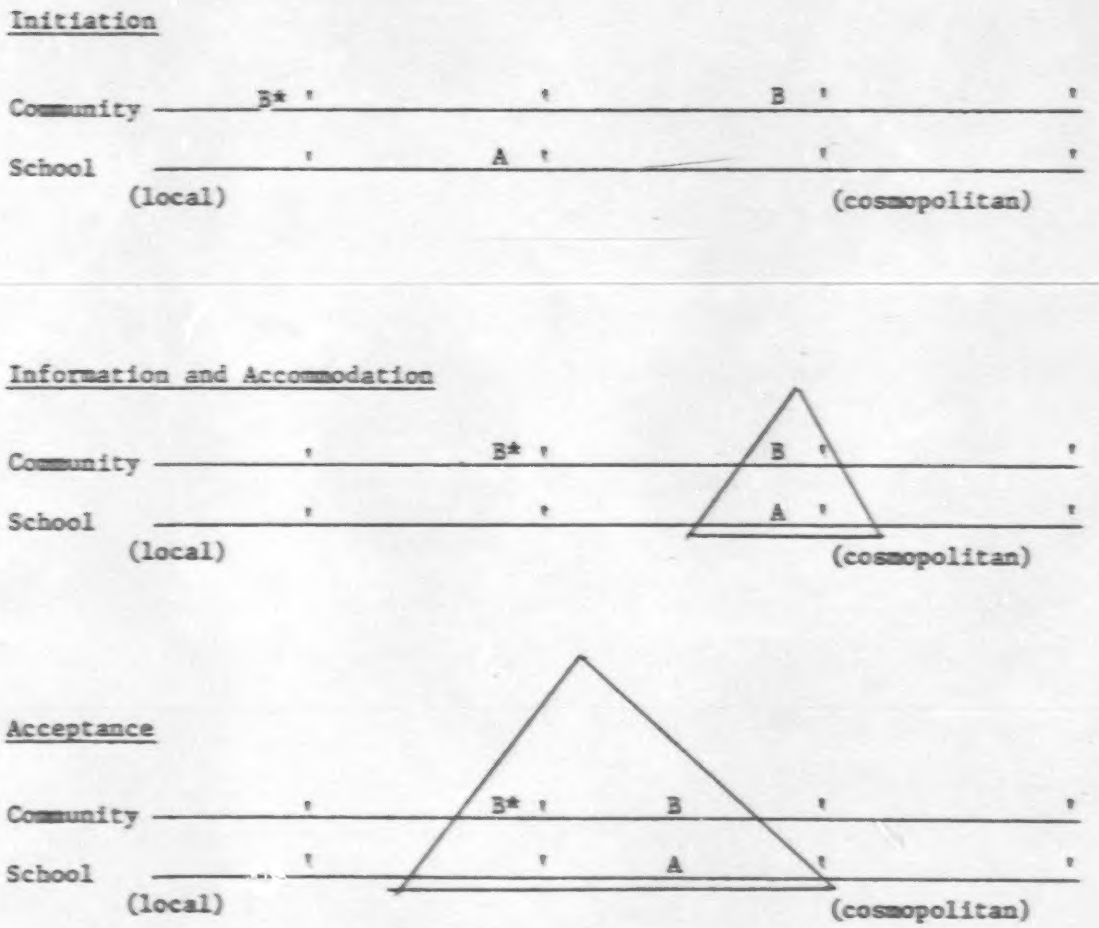
Zone of Tolerance: Rural City and Elm Hollow

One might expect that the zone of tolerance in Rural City and Elm Hollow School-Community would be rather large (see Figure 4-11). The

FIGURE 4-11

INERT SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: RURAL CITY AND ELM HOLLOW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ZONE OF TOLERANCE


Initiation
Community
B*
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Information and Accommodation
Community
B*
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Acceptance
Community
B*
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)

KEY

A=Superintendent, elementary principal, elementary supervisor & school staff
B=Change-oriented board members
B*=General community

elementary principal and elementary supervisor had both worked in the district for over thirty years and were trusted by the parents. Several of the parents of Inert School had formerly been their students.

The specific implementation tactic taken by the elementary principal and elementary supervisor was to couch the innovation in terms of what it meant for the children. The elementary supervisor had a favorite analogy of the multi-unit school to the one-room schoolhouse with which the parents were familiar.

A key aspect to the zone of tolerance in Inert School-Community and Rural City was the aid of designated influentials in the school-community environment. It may or may not have been entirely by chance that several of the board members and the mayor of Rural City's children attended the pilot school the first year of implementation. However, they, along with the influential farmer/board member, served as a phalanx to attest to the worthiness of the innovation when plans were made to continue the implementation efforts for a second four-room school the following year.

The triangles in Figure 4-11 depict the zones of tolerance in the Rural City School-Community from initiation to acceptance of IGE. The change oriented board members (B) clearly were ahead of the educators (A) during the initiation process. A zone of tolerance emerged during the information and accommodation process which included the change-oriented board members and the educators. In the acceptance process, the general community moved into the zone of tolerance with a sense that the program enjoyed consensual acceptance in the school-community environment.

McCarty/Ramsey Determination and the Zone of Tolerance.—In an Inert School-Community, one would expect that school officials would be granted a great deal of latitude and leadership by members of the community, as long as the innovation did not disrupt commonly held values and beliefs. Rather than educators, board members started the change sequence in their elementary schools when they hired a progressive superintendent to "shape up the elementary schools." Board members left the management of the change well enough alone after that. Throughout the change sequence, community members gave their educators a great deal of latitude based on trust and respect for the educators' opinions, particularly the two lifelong residents, the elementary principal and elementary supervisor. IGE was couched in values and symbol sets which Rural City residents felt comfortable with—one room school house, doing the best for children, fostering fair competition. Compared to the other three cases, acceptance emerged early in Rural City, primarily because IGE seemed to be working both to the educators and to the parents. The McCarty/Ramsey determination and the zone of tolerance fit well together in the Inert School-Community.

Zone of Tolerance: Kennedy Elementary School

IGE was presented to the Kennedy Elementary School-Community as a better way of providing elementary school education. The principal of Kennedy School is a native of College Town and had built an impressive record of leading educational innovation in the district. People respected the principal more on the basis of philosophy and expertise than trust.

The triangles in Figure 4-12 show the zones of tolerance in Kennedy Elementary School-Community from initiation to acceptance of IGE. The school clearly started out ahead of the mass of public opinion (B*) in the school-community but with a supportive, vocal minority (B) of committed and concerned parents. Through the periods of information and accommodation the school moved back towards the local end of the continuum, and the community moved toward the cosmopolitan end, but a new group formed during their coalescence. B** represents the die-hard academically-oriented parents who wanted school only as they had known it.

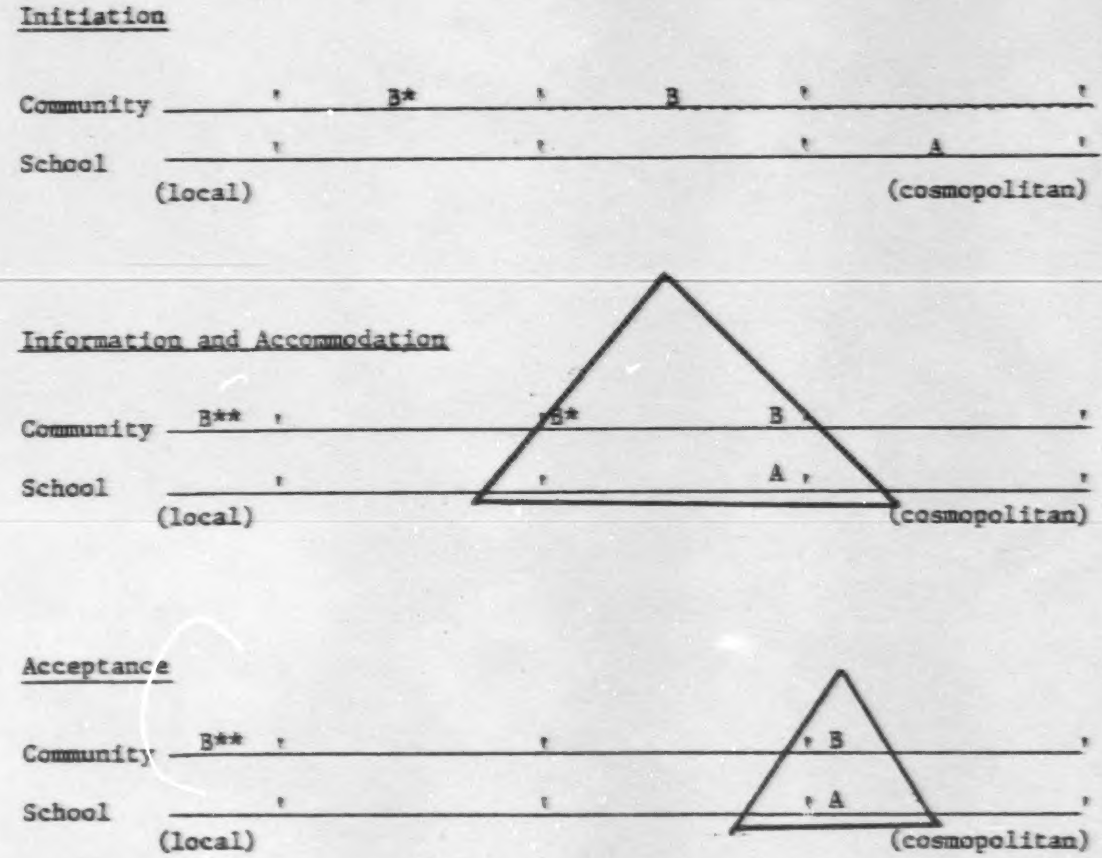
Acceptance with the school and the mass of public opinion in Kennedy Elementary School-Community arrives with consensus of informed opinion. Parents and teachers agreed alike at Kennedy that no parents knew more about what was going on at school than they did. Coffees, school visitations, talks, and volunteering all provided parents a first hand experience with what was happening at school. As they saw their children enjoying school, and as the program smoothed out, they, in turn, became more accepting of the instructional program. Acceptance can be documented at the end of the first year of implementation by the poll discussed above.

McCarty/Ramsey Determination and the Zone of Tolerance.—By analyzing Figure 4-13, one can see the emergence and sustained presence of factionalized groups in the Kennedy Elementary School-Community. The groups polarized over the alleged laxness of academic achievement at the school during the Information and Accommodation Phases. Latitude was

FIGURE 4-12

FACTIONAL SCHOOL-COMMUNITY; KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ZONE OF TOLERANCE


Initiation
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(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Information and Accommodation
Community
B**
B*
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Acceptance
Community
B**
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)

KEY

A=Staff and Principal
B=Concerned & Committed Parents forChange
B*=Mass of Public Opinion
B**=Die-Hards

granted by the change-oriented parents to Kennedy teachers and principal on the basis of expertise and shared values, rather than trust and longevity in the community, as it was in Rural City. Polarization occurred on substantive, value-laden issues. Both groups felt that they had analyzed their sides of the issues carefully. Factionalism helps explain why one group (in Figure 4-12, the B** diehards) remained outside the zone of tolerance. They had withdrawn their children and severed the relationship to Kennedy school officials. The McCarty/Ramsey model is helpful and gives power to the zone of tolerance in the Factional School-Community.

Zone of Tolerance: Woodrow Wilson School-Community

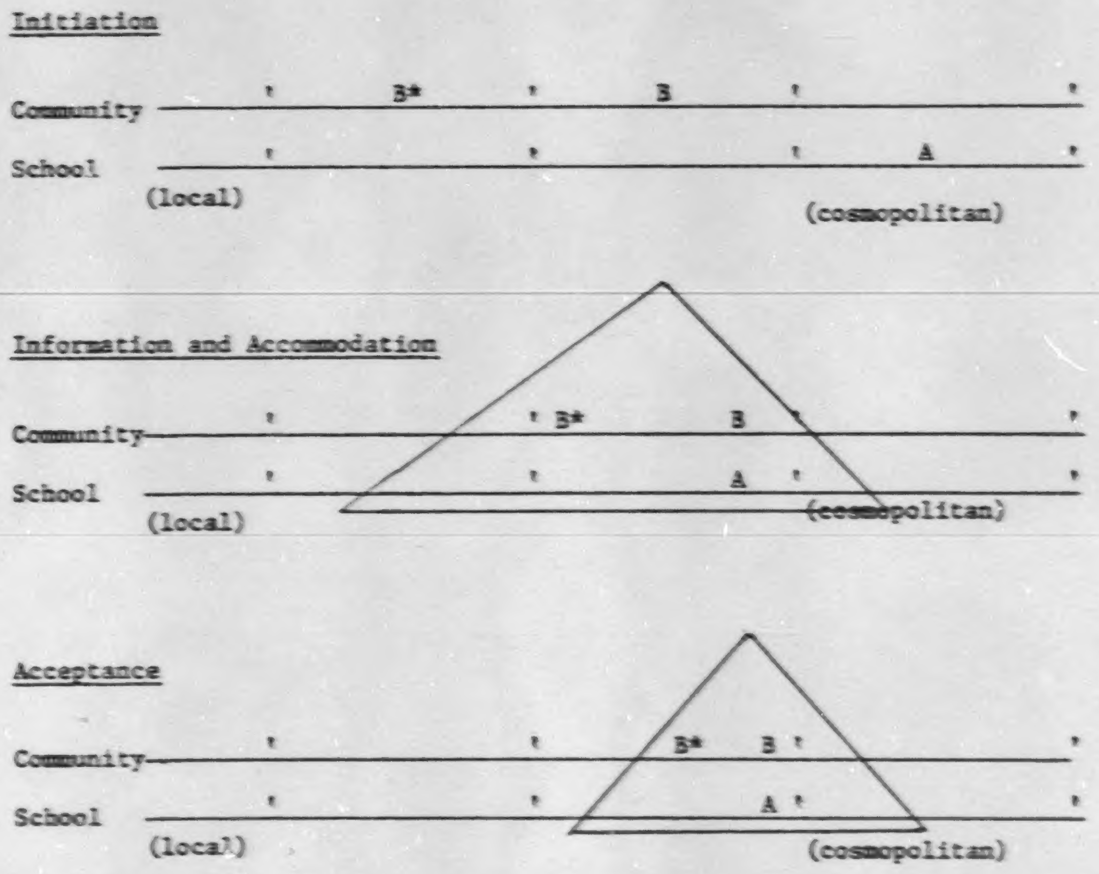
Leadership was granted to the principal and staff at Woodrow Wilson School on the basis of expertise and belief that their efforts towards individualizing instruction would meet the parental concerns for accountability and pupil progress data. IGE was presented as a systematic means of assuring a better educational program for their child. The multi-unit organizational pattern and, in particular, the diagnostic curriculum model appealed to the parents as a common sense means of finding out where their child was and helping the child achieve what he was capable of doing.

One will notice through Figure 4-13 that the vocal parents move the most during the Information and Accommodation phase. As one parent summed up opinion, "We didn't care if it was IGE or some other acronym, we wanted a system which would show us where our child was and would

FIGURE 4-13

PLURALIST SCHOOL-COMMUNITY; WOODROW WILSON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ZONE OF TOLERANCE


Initiation
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School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Information and Accommodation
Community
B*
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School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Acceptance
Community
B*
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)

KEY

A=Staff and Principal
B=Vocal Parents
B*=Mass of Parental Opinion

help that child achieve." Criticisms were made of the amount of testing, but nobody complained when test scores revealed impressive gains. Some accommodation occurred through rational search to complete the IGE organizational model with the designation of Pilot School status and additional monies. There may have been less student movement during the second year of IGE implementation. Volunteers and tutors were used to a great extent to work on math and reading curriculum areas. The net effect, however, was that the mass of public opinion approved the IGE instructional program when academic test scores provided the proof that the system worked and that it did what they wanted it to do.

The triangles in Figure 4-13 depict the zones of tolerance in Woodrow Wilson School-Community from initiation to acceptance of IGE. During the initiation process, the educators (A) were ahead of the vocal parents with a more cosmopolitan attitude towards change and definitely ahead of the mass of public opinion. However, a zone of tolerance which included the educators, vocal parents, and general parental groups formed during the information and accommodation processes, when parents realized that the educators were making sincere efforts to improve their children's education. Later, once test scores showed statistical proof for educational improvement, consensual acceptance was insured around a tighter zone of tolerance.

McCarty/Ramsey Determination and the Zone of Tolerance.--As in the Factional School-Community, Kennedy Elementary School, a group of concerned parents led the phalanx for change at Woodrow Wilson Elementary

School. However, at Wilson the demands were for accountable growth, far different from the value set of the change-oriented parents at Kennedy. In the pluralist case, once parental demands on particular issues were satisfied, they receded into the background. Latitude was granted to Shirley Lee, the principal, on the basis that IGE would produce results which would satisfy parental demands. Once again, a group of parents served as buffers and opinion leaders in information exchange to the general school-community. The McCarty/Ramsey determination helps explain the zone of tolerance in the Pluralist School-Community.

Zone of Tolerance: Kenyatta Elementary School

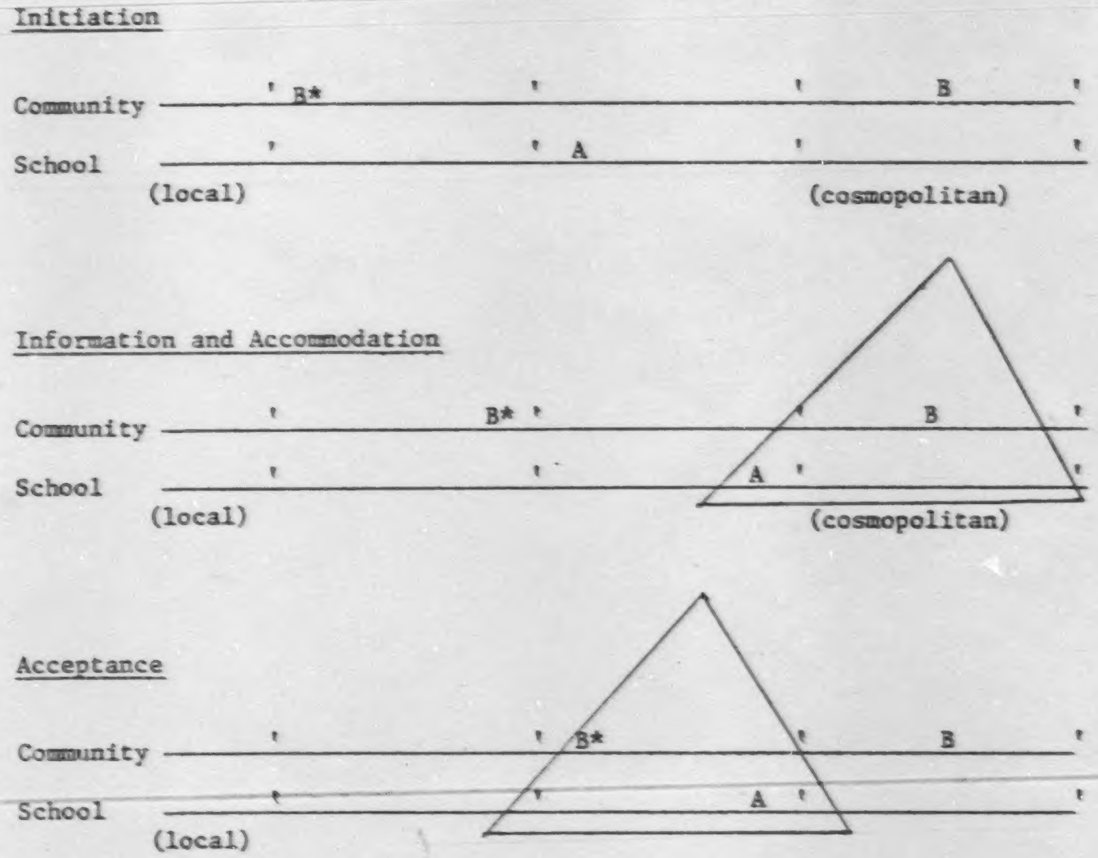
One can see through Figure 4-14 that the district change agents (B) were in the forefront of the change effort at both the district level and later at the school level. They got their mandate through a series of board elections where caucus-sponsored, change-oriented black parents were elected to the board of education.

The committed change agents group led the community in the change effort and only much later brought the school (A) and school-community (B*) into the change effort. As for acceptance, in a dominated school-community it means designation and cooptation of the significant opinion leaders in the school-community which occurred both at the district and school level. Teachers admitted that the great mass of parents probably knew little about the multi-unit plan, IGE, or Community-Family Guided Education. Acceptance for the great mass of parents occurred when the program worked for their child.

FIGURE 4-14

DOMINATED SCHOOL-COMMUNITY; KENYATTA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ZONE OF TOLERANCE


Initiation
Community
B*
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School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Information and Accommodation
Community
B*
B
School
A
(local)
(cosmopolitan)
Acceptance
Community
B*
B
School
A
(local)

KEY

A=Staff and Principal
B=District Level Change Planners
B*=Mass of Public Opinion

The triangles in Figure 4-14 show the zones of tolerance in Kenyatta Elementary School-Community from initiation to acceptance of IGE. The district level change planners (B) were definitely way out ahead of both the school (A) and the school-community throughout the implementation process. A zone of tolerance for their leadership emerged including the school personnel and the district level planners during the Information and Accommodation processes. However, the school (A) and school-community (B*) moved into a consensual acceptance of the program during the Acceptance process. The district level change planners (B) still were ahead of the other two groups pushing for more meaningful change in Community-Family Guided Education.

McCarty/Ramsey Determination and the Zone of Tolerance.--Although evidence for dominance was not found in the Kenyatta Elementary School-Community, the district does exhibit domination. District administrators played an important role in the change sequence at Kenyatta Elementary School. One can see by analyzing Figure 4-14 that the district level change planners (B on Figure 4-14) are way out ahead of both the school and community. It was the district level planners who designated Kenyatta Elementary School as the pilot school. Teachers at Kenyatta were told of the unit plan and were told that if they didn't like it they could leave. An elite clearly has controlled the Bay City district over the past four years and controlled what has gone on at Kenyatta Elementary School. In that sense, the McCarty/Ramsey model helps explain the zone of tolerance in the dominated case study. However, in terms of the research objectives to determine domination at the school-community level, analysis can not proceed further because of the lack of evidence for dominance in the Kenyatta Elementary School-Community.

With the analysis of the data now completed, attention will focus on objectives three and four of the research: (3) to generate hypotheses and reanalyze the conceptual frameworks for future research, (4) to generate practical recommendations for the public school audience.

Conceptual Frameworks Reanalyzed

Each of the three conceptual frameworks--community typology, policy process, and zone of tolerance--will be discussed and reanalyzed in the light of the four exploratory case studies presented in this research. Future research directions, both exploratory and verificational, will be indicated. Verifiable hypotheses will be offered. Recommendations for practitioners will follow in an attempt to capsulize the research findings on a practical level.

Community Typology at the Elementary School Attendance Level

The McCarty/Ramsey working hypotheses which guided the early selection of schools proved useful in providing sample variance. Data was found in three of the four community types, (Dominated School-Community the exception) to support the Inert/Factional/Pluralist/Dominated Model.

Evidence can be found in the community power and educational research literature to support different elements of this type of community typology.[14] As was discussed in Chapter I, the uniqueness of this research rests in its application of community typology at the elementary school attendance level. Summerfield's[15] four elementary school attendance area case studies each had a different political style, but he used interest group theory to explain the resource allocation patterns which came from the central office. In this research as well as Summerfield's, the building principal was an important focus of the research. The analysis of consensual parental groups in the four case studies of this research seems to support some of Summerfield's group theory results; that is, groups form on the basis of needs and issues, but will vary in different socioeconomic settings. The findings of this research also contribute to the Weeres and Firestone[16] research discussed in Chapter I. Weeres found that community groups are conservative in nature. His use of the word groups connotes a more formalistic notion of a recognized pressure group than the informal use of groups in this research. However, the significant role that parents played in the pluralist and factional case studies raises the possibility that groups may not be conservative generally but may vary according to community type. Firestone concluded that school-community pressure group leadership as essentially a small group of dedicated individuals. Analysis of the parental leadership patterns in each of the four case studies would tend to confirm Firestone's findings.

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[14] See Chapter I, pp. 17-20.

[15] Harry Summerfield, THE NEIGHBORHOOD-BASED POLITICS OF EDUCATION (Columbus, Ohio; Merrill Publishing Co., 1971).

[16] See Chapter I, p. 22-24.

Certain adaptations need to occur in bringing the McCarty/Ramsey model down to the elementary school level. The adaptations are in the pluralist and dominated parts of the model. As has been suggested earlier[17], the professional advisor phrase did not fit the reality of the pluralist case. Given the general autonomy of the building principal, the positional authority over the teachers, and control over and access to information, the professional director would seem to fit the realities of the public elementary school rather than advisor.

Exploratory research is needed to investigate the effects of population transiency on school-community participation. Transiency would seem to be a critical variable in predicting community type. Exploratory research is also needed on the intervening variables surrounding the level of issue resolution. Is the level of issue resolution a function of the control over information? What part does the element of trust in the professionals play, and what are the determinants of trust? Verificational research would seem to be possible to take the working hypotheses of this study and broaden their scope and interpretation into some definitive schemes of community typology at the neighborhood or building level.

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[17] See Chapter IV, p. 233.

The following nine hypotheses are derived from this exploratory research. A section will follow on the methodological implications for further community power research at the elementary school level before reanalyzing the policy process and zone of tolerance frameworks.

> Hypothesis 1: Inert elementary school-communities will tend to be found in areas of low population transiency, long tenure among administrators and teachers, and shared values among educators, parents, and other sub-publics.

The conditions stipulated in hypothesis 1 need not be restricted to rural areas. Indeed, some of the most inert communities may be pockets in large cities.

> Hypothesis 2: At the school attendance level, factional school-communities will be found primarily in areas where there is a physical, logical, or demographic reason for factionalism.

In the Factional School-Community, the most obvious reason for factionalism was that the school served three separated housing areas. The school was overcrowded and someone would have to go. Other types of factional situations might be a high socioeconomic area on one side of the street and a low socioeconomic group on the other side. Regarding the use of demographic data for the elementary school attendance area, demographic data was not able to be broken down with any amount of precision to offer explanatory power in the analysis of the data.

> Hypothesis 3: Factionalism will tend to occur over emotional, value-laden issues rather than rational, simple concerns.

The Factional School-Community again lends itself as an example of value laden issues. The parents who pulled their children out of Kennedy Elementary School were beyond rational decision-making about the nature of their child's elementary school experience. The reasons which they offered as significant in their decisions to remove their children from the school were value laden ones such as my child is not achieving, the school is only for fun and the like.

> Hypothesis 4: The pluralist school-community will tend to occur in transient, higher educated communities.

Transiency produces an unstable parental and student population which interacts with the school. These parents will tend not to build up biases, expectancies, or favorite teachers about the school because they have attended the school, for example, or they have known their child's teacher for years. Rather, they will react to specific situations which they feel need action. This set of expectancies from a transient community coupled to a higher educated parental group would lend itself to pluralism. It would seem that the more higher educated parents would not feel uncomfortable to challenge educators' expertise in a given area. For example, they would be more open to demand accountable student growth and be able to interpret the statistical output a standardized test produces, as they did in the Pluralist School-Community.

> Hypothesis 5: There is a direct relationship between participation in community affairs and determination of a pluralist school-community.

The busier parents are in community affairs such as charity groups, clubs, and the like, the less time they will have to focus in on school related affairs.

> Hypothesis 6: The dominated elementary school-community will be most difficult to find in the McCarty/Ramsey model.

The major reason for this is the problem of access to key informants in the dominated environment. Indeed, the individuals who may be your access points may be the key dominators in that environment.

> Hypothesis 7: The elementary school principal will be one of the dominating clique in a dominated school-community.

The role of the principal with its autonomy, access to information, and general level of importance has been discussed before. It seems highly logical that the principal will be one of, if not the controlling, individual in a dominated clique at the elementary school level.

> Hypothesis 8: Domination will occur through regular school-community programs and activities.

Most schools have some type of parental inclusion in decision-making, even though it may be advisory or illusory. The Dominated School-Community had the vehicles for domination--Parent Advisory Council, Mini-Board, Parent Inclusion at the Unit Level--if only parents had the interest in and concern over the stakes involved.

> Hypothesis 9: Domination will occur when issues and/or stakes are perceived as being worthwhile for participation in the environment.

If a school-community Parent Advisory Council was given control over the annual budget, new teacher hiring and experienced teacher retention, over the length of school day or other such significant issues, power actors would be inclined to enter the arena to make their influence felt. If the stakes are small or non-existent, it is only logical that they will not be inclined to participate.

Overall, the McCarty/Ramsey community typology appears to be useful in interpreting interaction in the home-school-community environment given the assumptions of the autonomy of the building principal and the critical role of access to information and policy direction.

Methodological Note on Community Power Study

Much of the discussion in the community typology section of the review of the literature in Chapter I centered around the methodological implications of various approaches taken by different researchers like Hunter, Dahl, the Lynds and so on.[18] The following observations regarding methodology conclude some of the unsettled arguments outlined in Chapter I.

Mix Methodological Approaches.--A conscious attempt was made to mix the Dahl/event analysis, Hunter/reputational, and Lynd/positional approaches in the data collection for the case studies. As other authors have indicated[19], mixing methodologies seems to be a balanced approach to community power study and is highly recommended. An analysis of Appendix will illustrate the types of nominations and interviews conducted in each case study research site.

Positional Nature of Actors.--A realization important to community power structure study at the elementary school attendance level is that actors tended to be positional in nature. There was no case where informal influentials were discerned as being power actors. Rather, the principal, President of the PTA, Chairman of the Parent Advisory Council, and so on were the types of individuals who were normally engaged in the political arena. The reasons for this might include the access to information which the positions have, and the potential for decision-making roles--goal setting and the like--which the position might offer.

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[18] See Chapter I, pp. 4-21.

[19] See Chapter I, pp. 8-11.

Need for Stakes or Substantive Issues.--If one is going to engage in community power study at the elementary school attendance level, the need for stakes, substantive issues around which actors may be engaged, is crucial. Dahl criticized Hunter for the lack of substantive issues around which actors might disagree. In turn, there is a need for actors to perceive something of worth in the school community environment to allow data collection rich enough for community typology ascription. An environment in which there are no monetary, or emotional value laden topics of concern will be an uninteresting one and a difficult one on which to conduct political analysis.

Survey Type Instrumentation.--A possibility exists to take the community typology checklist developed for this research (Appendix) and rework it into a survey type instrument. The instrument would need to be piloted and factor analyzed. It could be used with either a random sample or a sample of knowledgeables to pinpoint community type. It might also be helpful to correlate its findings to socioeconomic data, and other community survey instruments like the Tasks of Public

Education of Values in Education (Val-Ed.)[20].

The hypotheses and observations above conclude this section on the reanalysis of the community typology framework. The intent of this section has been to explore possible future research ventures rather than offer truth at a level of statistical significance. The conclusions and observations are suggestive rather than definite.

Policy Process Acceptance Pattern

The different types of acceptance patterns for innovations were discussed in Chapter I.[21] Each was found to be lacking the realization that the acceptance of the innovation needed to include the environment outside the organization. For that reason, the four-phased policy process scheme was adapted to fit the operative conditions of the elementary school environment.

The efficacy of the four-phased scheme from the data analysis conducted above[22] seems to indicate that the policy scheme is helpful in understanding the phases of initiation to acceptance if one recognizes the non-linearity of the model. In other words, it would be logical to expect that acceptance would come after accommodation, but in two of the cases, legitimacy actually preceded accommodation. What appears evident from the over two hundred interviews in the four school-communities, however, is that there are discernible patterns of acceptance.

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[20] For explication of the Tasks of Public Education, see J. W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell; EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS A SOCIAL PROCESS (N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1968), Chapter 6. For explication of Val-Ed., Dr. William Wiener, "Val-Ed." unpublished document (Lenoir Rhyne College, North Carolina), mimeographed.

[21] See Chapter I, 31-43.

[22] See Chapter IV, pp. 209-210.

The following hypotheses will be clustered to fit the four phases of the policy process--initiation, information, accommodation, acceptance. A section on unanticipated findings will conclude this reanalysis of the policy process conceptual framework.

Initiation

> Hypothesis 10: The initiation of the idea for IGE will come through the central office to the building level.

This would seem to coincide with Lacy's findings in Indiana.[23] This hypothesis is similar to the dissertation study presently being conducted by Mr. Charles Goodridge at the University of Wisconsin-Madison.[24]

Information

> Hypothesis 11: There will be a greater likelihood for implementation success if information is presented in terms of the relationship of the innovation to the child's education, rather than if information about the innovation is presented in abstract terms.

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[23] Dennis G. Lacy, "Methods of Introducing Individually Guided Education (IGE) Programs in Selected School Systems in Indiana" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1972).

[24] Charles Goodridge, "Factors Affecting the Decision to Adopt An Educational Innovation: IGE," dissertation in progress, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Spring, 1975.

In the Inert, Dominated, and Pluralist School-Communities, IGE was presented as a diagnostic curriculum and continuous progress for each child. In effect, educators were able to say to parents, "We're going to take your child from where he/she is and allow your child to progress as far and as fast as he/she can." This tactic was not followed with strict adherence in the Factional School-Community at first, but later they did focus in on the individual child as, in effect, the recipient of the innovation's strong points.

> Hypothesis 12: In most communities, there will be a greater likelihood for implementation success if labels or slogans are avoided in the presentation of information to parents.

This point will be elaborated on in the unanticipated findings sections of this reanalysis. Labels are often seized upon by parents; once a label has emerged, parents will never look past the label to the actual meaning of the terms.

> Hypothesis 13: There will be a greater likelihood for implementation success if communications patterns from school to home are essentially two-way which will allow parents to interact, ask questions, and discuss in non-threatening environments the total school program.

There seemed to be no doubt that parents wanted time to interact with teachers and the principal. They did not want to be lectured to, nor did they want to see films or filmstrips. Rather, they wanted time for questions and answers to find out what the change meant for their child.

Accommodation

> Hypothesis 14: Accommodation points will be difficult to determine and trace to their origins.

This hypothesis is closely related to the following one and should be discussed with it.

> Hypothesis 15: The more open the system about using the IGE slogan set, the more visible will be accommodation points.

Determining accommodation points was one of the most difficult parts of the analysis of the data. It was anticipated that it would be rather easy to pinpoint the programmatic changes made as a result of school-community interaction. In reanalysis, each of the cases varied in the openness with which they described IGE. In the Factional School-Community, a PTO poll indicated that the chief concern among parents was discipline and the amount of noise between the pods. During the summer, the PTO supplied money for barriers between the pods. During the summer, the PTO supplied money for barriers between the pods. It seems very logical that the building of the barriers had a direct relationship to school-community interactions. Yet teachers and unit leaders at the school maintained that they as the IIC decided to build the barriers and the parents had very little to do with it. This type of intended or unintended strategem threw conceptual analysis off quite a few times.

Acceptance

> Hypothesis 16: There is a direct relationship between the school childrens' acceptance of the innovation and parental acceptance of the innovation.

Parents many times during interviews said that they accepted the IGE system when their child came home happy and unconfused. This is a clear connection across the four community types studied.

> Hypothesis 17; There is a direct relationship between parental inclusion into school activities and rate of program acceptance.

Perhaps because of the inert quality of the community, or perhaps because of the amount of inclusion into activities, parents at Elm Hollow (the Inert School-Community) accepted the program the earliest in the school year. They were included as members of the school-community in several of the activities which preceded the school's opening in the fall. Inclusion into school activities also certainly helped Kennedy Elementary School (the Factional School-Community) survive its tough first year and gain parental acceptance by the end of that school year.

Unanticipated Findings: Policy Process Acceptance Pattern

There were several findings which resulted from the reanalysis of the conceptual frameworks which were not anticipated. They were not in hard enough data form to warrant a verifiable hypothesis, but they were strong enough to mention as future possible exploratory research topics.

Problematic State.--It has been documented time and time again that change occurs upon the recognition of a problematic state. However, it was unanticipated that the demands in each of the four cases would differ so much. The demand in Inert School-Community was simply a better, more individualized approach to education. The demand in Factional School-Community centered on some vague notions of an alternative to the traditional elementary program. The demand in the Pluralist School-Community was for a system which would give accountable student growth through an objectives based curriculum. The demand in the

Dominated School-Community was for an individualized program which would also lend itself to an extended family concept, The data would seem to imply that IGE is a value free system which could be molded to fit any particular demand or problem. This observation lends itself to further exploratory analysis under what problematic conditions IGE was brought in.

Use of Language/Symbol Sets.--Those in an academic or Research and Development setting[25] readily acknowledge school programs by their acronyms or slogan sets. The phrase slogan sets is part of an analytical scheme devoted to elementary school innovations analysis. This researcher did not expect to run into the variety of terms and phrases used for IGE in the field. It was variously called the Wisconsin Plan, the Unit Plan, the reading program, by interview subjects in the field. One might be able to put together a research conceptual framework which took concepts from Douglas, Cicourel, and Edelman[26] and stretch the suggestions made above in the problematic state analysis and the use of language/symbol sets. It really became true that for effective field work, one must enter the field with the language that the field uses,

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[25] See Herbert J. Klausmeier, et al., INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION AND THE MULTI-UNIT ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (Madison: Wisconsin Board of Regents for the Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning; 1971).

[26] See Jack D. Douglas, UNDERSTANDING EVERYDAY LIFE; TOWARD THE RECONSTRUCTION OF SOCIOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE (London; Aldine Pub. Co., 1970), Chapter One; and Aaron V. Cicourel, THE SOCIAL ORGANIZATION OF JUVENILE JUSTICE (N.Y.: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1968), Chapter One; and Murray Edelman, THE SYMBOLIC USES OF POLITICS (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1974, 6th Edition).

Anticipation of Problems/Use of Informal Networks.--The difficulty of determining accommodation points was discussed above and specific hypotheses were indicated. However, it was unanticipated that parts of the IGE system would be modified or altered to fit the local systems' needs or value patterns. For example, the diagnostic curriculum (IPM) is downplayed in the Dominated School-Community, though it is used in different ways at the school. The element of conscious individualization and accountability is not one which is desireable to bring out in that environment. The point here is that the system is not benign nor rational, rather it was tricky and difficult to conduct field research where the field did not use the model as it existed in the abstract, but rather adapted it to fit their needs. Administrators and teachers were able to anticipate problems that they might encounter in using some of the IGE components in their school systems and make compromises along the way. These compromises were done in an informal, probably unintended manner rather than a conscious attempt to dupe the public. They again point out the effectiveness of operative definitions in the field, rather than abstract notions from the university.

These eight hypotheses and set of three unanticipated findings conclude the section on the reanalysis of the policy process acceptance pattern. A reanalysis of the zone of tolerance as a conceptual framework will conclude this section of Chapter IV.

Zone of Tolerance

The zone of tolerance was used in this research in an attempt to analyze the change sequence from the initiation to the acceptance of IGE. Although other concepts discussed in Chapter I[27] were similar, the zone of tolerance seemed to crystallize the relationship between home, school and community.

In review, Moynihan and McGivney defined the zone of tolerance as the "the latitude or area of maneuverability granted (or yielded) to the leadership of the schools by the community."[28] Certain adaptations and enlargements were made from their original conceptualization for this research. One adaptation was to section off the continuum from local to cosmopolitan using ' marks into four areas. This allowed a tighter conceptualization of the school-community variance of opinion. Another adaptation was to collapse the four phases of the policy process into initiation, information and accommodation, and acceptance so that the policy process acceptance pattern and the zone of tolerance would be integrated. This integration greatly aided the conceptualization of the zone of tolerance in each school-community.

In Moynihan and McGivney's RECORD article, they discuss the possible differences in zones of tolerance studying differing types.[29]

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[27] See Chapter I, pp. 43-47.

[28] McGivney and Moynihan, p. 221.

[29] McGivney and Moynihan, pp. 214-221.

What has not come out in analysis of the zone of tolerance to date, however, is the difference suggested. Not only is it logical to expect that zones of tolerance may be different for different types of communities, but it now can be documented with case study research on the type of community variance which is suggested in the literature and the McCarty/Ramsey community typology framework.

The following hypotheses are derived from the use of the zone of tolerance concept in this research.

> Hypothesis 18: The factors which determine the amount of latitude granted by the community to the educational leaders will vary according to the community power structure.

The factors most important would include trust, shared values, reliance and sophitication of expertise, and the shared recognition of need among the home-school-community environmental actors.

> Hypothesis 19: Parents will act as opinion leaders for or against the innovation in all types of communities.

Something which was not expected in the zone of tolerance analysis was the key role which school parent influentials seemed to play in each of the four cases in this research. In each case, the principal and unit leaders instinctively worked with parents who had similar values and attitudes towards the innovation. Surely a self-selection process occurred on the part of the parents. However, it might be useful to look at public opinion as a bipolar continuum with one end of the continuum being the die-hard "school as I knew it" type of individuals and the other end of the continuum being the change-oriented parents.

Designation of those opinion leaders at both ends of the continuum coupled to the slogan systems which would work best in that setting might be the type of school-community relations needed to successfully present the implementation from the parents' point of view. The suggestion clearly is that a few key individuals would either serve to criticize the program if either (a) they were among the designated opinion leaders, or (b) they did not agree with the thrust of the innovation. However, once those key opinion leaders had been designated and could serve as lightning rods out in the community, they would be able to move the general mass of opinion over to acceptance. Moreover, the type of research which is needed would analyze the exact intervening variables between the school's intuitive or positional selection of those opinion leaders and the opinion leaders themselves. This type of conceptual research could prove of wide benefit for practicing school administrators.

The McCarty/Ramsey framework and the policy process acceptance pattern both fit well into the zone of tolerance analysis. The McCarty/Ramsey framework added explanatory power to the zone of tolerance analysis. The policy process phases added a tighter conceptualization of the zone of tolerance shifts among school-community actors. The changes in Moynihan and McGivney's original zone of tolerance seem to add, rather than confuse, zone of tolerance analysis. These changes imply that the future of zone of tolerance analysis will include a framework with attitudinal survey type instrumentation. The design would include pre-testing parents, educators and other sub-publics before, during and after the implementation of the innovation.

Recommendations for Practitioners

The final objective of this research was to generate recommendations for practitioners based on the data gathered and the analysis made in objectives one through three. The recommendations will be clustered around a four phased model of home-school-community relations developed by Bowles and Fruth.[30] The four phases of the model are: (1.) analysis, (2.) involvement, (3.) communication, and (4.) resolution.

Analysis

Too often in the past, home-school-community relations has been a haphazard, unrecognized "fly by the seat of your pants" part of the administrator's duties in the public schools.[31] Analysis should be made for effective home-school-community relations in the following areas. (1) Administrators should gain skills in community analysis. They schould be able to intuitively, as well as deductively analyze the type and style of community in which they work. (2) Before undertaking any change-oriented programs, educators should strenuously probe the view of the problematic state in the home-school-community environment. In other words, they shouldn't talk to parents about how bad the program is and how the new one will improve it if the parents, in fact, think the on-going program is good. In counterpoint, they should be sensitive and open to criticisms by parents so that they can include parental opinion in program management in a meaningful way. (3) Once an innovation is undertaken in the school, analysis should be made of the problems and needs which will be encountered by the parental population in the future. For example, if the parents want hard academic growth data about the efficacy of the innovation, that data will be on hand. (4) School officials should identify and involve key school-community influentials early in the innovation history. They should gain skills of building a reputational type of grid so that they can identify and win over the opinion leaders in the school-community environment.

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[30] See B. Dean Bowles and Marvin J. Fruth, "Improving Home-School Community Relations" in THE PRINCIPAL AND INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION (Reading, Mass.; Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1976), Chapter 6. In press.

[31] Research which attempts to analyze school personnel's conceptualization of their home-school-community relations programs and activities is currently under way by Mr. Walter J. Krupa in the R3 component of the Wisconsin Research and Development Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Involvement

Involvement can mean telling people what they're going to be doing because it has been decided that it's going to be done. Or it can mean grass roots, developmental inclusion in decision-making at all levels. The latter is certainly more effective than the former. (5) Of course, parents and othe significant sub-publics like opinion leading non-parents, senior citizens and the like should be involved in the school changeover. Moreover, it is the recommendation of this research that the students be involved and knowledgeable about the change in school program. Students can be the most effective ambassadors of the school's program. If they come home unhappy or confused, it will not take very long for it to filter back to the school through the parents. (6) Educators should involve parents in school activities such as preservice workshops and unit meetings. Parents need to get a tangible, visible feeling of what is going on at school.

Communication

Communication patterns have been studied and restudied in schools and and in school-community relations.[32] The results of this research should offer case study data as to the utility of two-way communications patterns. (7) Educators should use two-way communications patterns to effectively transmit information and involve others in what is going on at school. Reliance should not be made on school newsletters or media to effectively translate what the school is trying to do. Efforts should be made to allow interaction, questions and answers, give and take on what the school is actually trying to do for the child. (8) Above all else, data in this research points out to the need for educators to focus home-school-community relations programs and activities on the child. It is a wrong tactic to take to attempt to explain the benefits, philosophies, in effect attempt to teach parents about a particular program if the child is not made the heart of that analysis. Educators should not tell parents about the program in the abstract but tell them how it is going to effect their child.

Resolution

(9) Educators should aim for programmatic smoothness very early in the implementation of the innovation. It should be clear that a

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[32] See Chapter I, pp. 52-57.

smooth running program will insure parental acceptance very early in the change sequence. (10) Educators should plan to conduct a survey among the parental population some time in their innovation history, probably near the end of the first year of the innovation. They should be open and honest about the findings, but they need that survey base both to guide their future with the program and also protect their flank against unjust criticism. (11) Educators should be aware of the possibilities for factionalism in their school-community. They can not please all people all of the time. Attempts should be made to recognize honest differences in school philosophies amongst parents and provide viable options for those parents who want an alternative to an IGE school.

Summary

Exploratory case study research should be undertaken when previous research shows a lack of conceptual sets ready to verify in a larger setting. A review of the literature showed a dearth of research on the implementation process and home-school-community relations. Change studies seemed oriented to intra-organizational acceptance and missed the larger environment in which they operated. This research was undertaken to attempt to enlarge the literature in school-community relations, change studies, and the politics of education generally. It was undertaken to generate recommendations for practitioners.

In terms of conceptual additions to the literature in educational administration, this research attempted to offer a set of verifiable hypotheses for further researchers to criticize, use, and build upon. The twenty hypotheses discussed above were only offered as possible building blocks for future research. They were not offered as the last truth on a changing and dynamic subject.

The three conceptual frameworks used in this study had utility and explanatory power. They seemed to integrate well in the conceptual analysis. The McCarty/Ramsey community typology proved to be useful at the elementary school attendance level. It needs certain revisions and adaptations. It will be difficult to determine in the absence of issues and stakes, as has been discussed before. However, it did provide a useful starting point as working hypotheses for the sample variance of the study. The policy process acceptance pattern of initiation, information, accommodation, and acceptance proved to be useful, if at times slippery concept for analysis. It is a conceptual scheme which offers the practitioner as well as the researcher a framework in which the change process can be analyzed in the school-community environment. The zone of tolerance proved to be a useful concept and integrated well into the policy process phases. It needs further reanalysis in different types of communities with harder based survey instrumentation. But overall, it proved to be a useful conceptual map to place over the data.

The recommendations to practitioners may seem trite to the successful practitioner or might seem amoral to an idealist. Many of the recommendations are part of standard operating policies in successful schools across the country. However, the number of schools experiencing difficulties both with IGE and with their parent populations would indicate that a great deal needs to be learned about the practical everyday operations of home-school-community relations. The recommendations do not come out of an essentially amoral philosophical persuasion. Rather, they come out of a recognition of the essentially political nature of the school-community environment.

The wrong variables may have been isolated for analysis. Memories may have proven poor in the nature of post factum research. Selection of schools could have been better, somehow, to reduce any type of Hawthorne effect or halo effect. However, at least an attempt was made to begin a research dialogue on the critical aspects of home-school-community relations.

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Technical Report No. 360
(Part 3 of 3 Parts)

HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS AS A POLITICAL PROCESS: FOUR EXPLORATORY CASE STUDIES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INDIVIDUALLY GUIDED EDUCATION (IGE) AND HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

by

William R. Miles

Report from the Project on
Organization for Instructional Administrative Arrangements

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December 1975

APPENDIX A

McCarty-Ramsey Model Checklist

Inert School-Community

__________ 1) possible but unlikely presence of elites

__________ 2) key influentials, knowledgeables may be present

__________ 3) low transient community, typically rural

__________ 4) homogeneous value system "uncosmopolitan"

__________ 5) similar educational philosophies

__________ 6) may be similar ethnic/religious backgrounds

__________ 7) hardly ever any issues

__________ 8) school-community conflict resolution handled interpersonally

__________ 9) school-community leadership non-existent

__________ 10) attendance at school-community affairs likely to be low; school-community affairs likely to be traditional "events" rather than regularly scheduled meetings

Factional School-Community

_________ 1) recognizable groups, sustained group identity

_________ 2) recognition of we's and they's

_________ 3) transience either normal or high

_________ 4) differing value systems, perhaps cosmopolitan versus local

_________ 5) differing educational philosophies

_________ 6) may be differing ethnic/religious backgrounds

_________ 7) issues present and continuing

_________ 8) school-community conflict resolution handled out in open but conflict never really resolved

_________ 9) school-community leadership possible reliance on standing committees (ex. PTA standing committee on . . .)

_________ 10) attendance at school-community regularly scheduled meetings likely to be low or normal unless there is an important agenda

Pluralist School-Community

__________ 1) shifting alliances rather than sustained groups

__________ 2) may be several influentials

__________ 3) transience either normal or high, typically suburban community

__________ 4) differing value systems, heterogeneous and compatible

__________ 5) tolerance for differing educational philosophies

__________ 6) tolerance for differing ethnic/religious backgrounds

__________ 7) issues present but resolvable

__________ 8) school-community conflict resolution handled out in open with need to get all the facts and open debate

__________ 9) school-community leadership changes and is shared

__________ 10) attendance at school-community regularly scheduled meetings may be high if an interesting agenda is scheduled

Dominated School-Community

__________ 1) presence of elites, cliques

__________ 2) presence of key influentials

__________ 3) low transience community

__________ 4) homogeneous value system

__________ 5) similar educational philosophies

__________ 6) similar ethnic/religious backgrounds

__________ 7) issues seldom surface

__________ 8) style of school-community conflict resolution would be low-key

__________ 9) school-community leadership a tight clique

__________ 10) attendance at regularly scheduled school-community meetings likely to be low

APPENDIX B

Phase I Interview Schedule

School ______________________ Respondent ______________________

Interviewer ______________________ Address ______________________

Interview Beg. __________ End __________ Phone ______________________

Total Time ______________

Background Information:

Children Number _____; Length of residence _____; How long teaching (admin.) _____

# of Children in (name) School _____.

Names of Children ____

I. INTRODUCTION

- A. Who interviewer is
- B. Where interviewer comes from
- C. What does interviewer do
- D. Why particular school selected
- E. Why respondent selected
- F. Nature of project
- G. What happens to the information
  - 1. Anonymity of information
  - 2. Result dissemination
- H. Does respondent have any questions

Present card with five questions.

II. Could you tell me a little bit about the ___ school and its community? (Probe: Before IGE; kids; staff; community, etc.) (Probe: School/community history; Student body characteristics; Organizational history; When got into IGE; Before IGE, what kind of school; Staff characteristics; Socio-economic characteristics of community

III. Could you tell me about any of the programs or activities which involve the home, the school, or the community? (Probe: Analytical Code; Open house; Planning; Report cards)

IV. How did IGE get started at ___ school? (Probe: Are there other programs or activities associated with IGE implementation that we haven't already talked about? Probe: Analytical Code)

V. Can you think of any other things that have helped or hindered school-community relationships? (Probe: Issues, Problems, Concerns, Crises; Second Analytical Code)

Analytical Code

1. IGE/non-IGE
2. Crisis or planned?
3. Initiation
4. Implementation
   a. How it was organized?
   b. Who's responsible?
   c. Who coordinates?
   d. How does it operate?
5. Involvement
   a. Professional Staff
   b. "Non" professional
6. Results
   a. Does it do what it is supposed to do?
   b. Suggested Improvements

---

1. Favorable/Unfavorable
2. Child/parent/school/community orientation
3. Individual/Groups
4. Resolvable/Unresolvable
   Why?
   With whom? Dates/Names
   Places
5. Past/present/future

APPENDIX C

Phase II Interview Schedule

School ______________________ Respondent ______________________

Formerly Interviewed by ______________ Address ______________________

Children Number _______; Length of residence _______; How long teaching (admin.)_____

# of Children in (name) School ______________________

Names of Children ____

Respondent Selected because of: ______________________________________

____

Others Respondent Associated with: ____________________________________

____

IGE EVENT TIMELINE

'7__	J		Year 1	'7__	J		Year 2	'7__	J		Year 3
	F		D		F		D		F		D
	M		N		M		N		M		N
	A		O		A		O		A		O
	M		S		M		S		M		S
	J	J	A		J	J	A		J	J	A

NOMINATED PROGRAMS/ACTIVITIES

Implementation	Regular
1	6
2	7
3	8
4	9
5	10

NOMINATED ISSUES

	Issues	Actors		Issues	Actors
1			4		
2			5		
3			6		

Site ______________________

Respondent ________________

IGE EVENT TIMELINE

'7__	J		Year 1	'7__	J		Year 2	'7__	J		Year 3
	F		D		F		D		F		D
	M		N		M		N		M		N
	A		O		A		O		A		O
	M		S		M		S		M		S
	J	J	A		J	J	A		J	J	A

1. Ask Respondent to verify card with IGE implementation guideline.

2. In retrospect, how did IGE implementation go at ______________ School? (probe: point of IGE initiation for r, specific associations/actors, cohorts, programs, problem identification)

3. When the IGE program got started, did it represent much of a change for schools (school-community, parents, children)? (probe: how, how know, why/why not, documentation, their community analysis, staff analysis) And how did the school handle those changes?

Site ______________________

Respondent ________________

4. One of our purposes is to provide suggestions for new IGE schools. Did you (or the school) do anything differently the second semester (year)? (probe: why, s-c, c.o., parental reaction, individuals, groups)

5. When do you feel the ____________ school-community accepted the IGE program? (probe: why then, how know, documentation)

Site ____________________

Respondent ______________

IGE EVENT TIMELINE

'7__	J		Year 1	'7__	J		Year 2	'7__	J		Year 3
	F		D		F		D		F		D
	M		N		M		N		M		N
	A		O		A		O		A		O
	M		S		M		S		M		S
	J	J	A		J	J	A		J	J	A

NOMINATED PROGRAMS/ACTIVITIES/ACTORS

	Activities	Actors		Activities	Actors
1			6		
2			7		
3			8		
4			9		
5			10		

Implementation Activity:

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Can you suggest others who might have information on this activity?

1. Initiation
   - when, where
   - who
   - how
   - for what reasons
2. Implementation
   - when, where
   - how organized
   - who coordinates
   - how did it operate
3. Involvement
   - how many
   - who
   - why
4. Relation to
   - school
   - s-c
   - c.o.
5. Results of Imp. Activity

Research site ____________________

Respondent ____________________

H-S-C Program/Activity ____________

IGE EVENT TIMELINE

'7 __	J		**Year 1**	'7 __	J		**Year 2**	'7 __	J		**Year 3**
	F		D		F		D		F		D
	M		N		M		N		M		N
	A		O		A		O		A		O
	M		S		M		S		M		S
	J	J	A		J	J	A		J	J	A

NOMINATED PROGRAMS/ACTIVITIES

Implementation	**Regular**
1	6
2	7
3	8
4	9
5	10

Program/Activity Description:

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

Analytical Code

1. IGE/non-IGE
2. Crisis or planned?
3. Initiation
4. Implementation
   a. How was it organized?
   b. Who's responsible?
   c. Who coordinates?
   d. How does it operate?
   e. Frequency - how often
5. Involvement
   a. Professional Staff
   b. "Non" professional
6. Any Documentation
7. Results
   a. Does it to what it is supposed to do?
   b. Suggested improvements

How has this activity operated since _______ School went IGE? (Probe - cause/effect, reasons for change)

____

____

Can you suggest anyone else who might have more information on this program -

____

Site ____________________

Respondent ____________________

Issue ____________________

IGE EVENT TIMELINE

'7__	J		Year 1	'7__	J		Year 2	'7__	J		Year 3
	F		D		F		D		F		D
	M		N		M		N		M		N
	A		O		A		O		A		O
	M		S		M		S		M		S
	J	J	A		J	J	A		J	J	A

NOMINATED ISSUES/ACTORS

Issue	Actors	Issues	Actors
1		6	
2		7	
3		8	
4		9	
5		10	

Issue to be discussed:

Analytical Code

1. IGE/non-IGE
2. Individual/Groups/Associations
3. Resolution?
   - when, how
   - with whom, by whom
   - dates, names, places
4. Relation to s-c
5. Relation to c.o.
6. Any school programmatic change

Can you suggest anyone else who might have some information on this issue?

Appendix D

INTERVIEW RESPONDENT SELECTION SUMMARIES

INERT SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: RURAL CITY

Educators[a]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	3 AD	11 T 3 H	4 Students
Phase II	4 AD 2 T	2 T	2 T

Parents[b]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	9	—	—
Phase II	1	—	—

Community Members[c]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	3	—
Phase II	2	—	—

Total Number of Interviews = 46.

---

[a] Educators here are designated as AD = Administrators, H = aides and non-certified school personnel, and T = Teachers.

[b] Parents here mean parents of children attending the school being researched.

[c] Community members include non-parents in the school-attendance area, district community members, and school board members.

FACTIONAL SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENNEDY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Educators[a]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	8 T 2 H 3 AD	—
Phase II	7 AD	—	—
	1 T	—	—

Parents[b]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	5	10
Phase II	10	1	—

Community Members

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	3	—
Phase II	2	—	—

Total Number of Interviews = 52.

---

[a] Educators here are designated as AD = administrators, H = aides and non-certified school personnel, T = Teachers.

[b] Parents here mean parents of children attending the school being researched.

[c] Community members include non-parents in the school-attendance area, district community members, and school board members.

PLURALIST SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: WOODROW WILSON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Educators[a]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	6 AD 2 H 5 T	5 H 13 T
Phase II	1 AD 8 T	2 AD	—

Parents[b]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	3	8
Phase II	1	3	—

Community Members

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	3	—
Phase II	—	2	—

Total Number of Inerviews = 62.

---

[a] Educators here are designated as AD = administrators, H = aides and non-certified school personnel, T = Teachers.

[b] Parents here mean parents of children attending the school being researched.

[c] Community members include non-parents in the school-attendance area, district community members, and school board members.

DOMINATED SCHOOL-COMMUNITY: KENYATTA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Educators[a]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	9 T 3 AD	—
Phase II	2 T 1 AD	—	4 T

Parents[b]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	—	4
Phase II	1	1	3

Community Members[c]

	Nominated	Positional	Random
Phase I	—	4	—
Phase II	—	1	—

Total Number of Interviews = 34.

---

[a] Educators here are designated as AD = administrators, H = aides and non-certified school personnel, T = Teachers.

[b] Parents here mean parents of children attending the school being researched.

[c] Community members include non-parents in the school-attendance area, district community members, and school board members.

Appendix E

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Appendix E

Demographic Data

Contact was first made with the University of Wisconsin-Madison Demography Center about the availability of census data. Data which might be of help was available in three forms: (1.) the Justice Department and U.S.O.E. had compiled census data by school districts across the country; (2.) Data existed in the form of housing blocks in SMSAs (An SMSA is a large urbanized area); (3.) Data was most commonly stored by census tracts in SMSAs.

The original plan was to gather pertinent district data through the Justice Department tapes and then identify block numbers by elementary school attendance area and sum those blocks to give school attendance area data which would parallel the school district data. Analysis of what was available in the block data indicated that little of it seemed to be worthwhile to this study. The block data is mostly concerned with housing patterns. Appropriate census tract numbers for each school-attendance area were obtained and, where available, census tract information was supplied.

Data were gathered on thirteen variables; not all are included in this appendix. The tables included in this appendix originate from the district as well as census tract information. They do not offer any explanatory power to the case studies. At best, they are descriptive of the general area. Information was included for the smallest population unit in the study--Rural City--and the largest—Affluent Suburb's County School District—to illustrate the problem.

The tables included in this appendix represent the best and the worst of the demography data. The Rural City data can be easily scanned because it describes the entire school district. There is no way in which the Rural City data could be broken down into the Elm Hollow School attendance area. Tract data was not available for Rural City because it was not in a SMSA. The Affluent Suburb—County School District and the Woodrow Wilson Elementary School Attendance area are clearly the most difficult to interpret. The county school district is far too large even to begin an analysis which would allow meaningful interpretation for the school district. The five census tracts are too diffuse to allow any collapsing for explanatory power. A bi-polar planimeter was used on census tract maps to determine the percentage of elementary school attendance area in each tract. However, this method proved to be sketchy at best when dealing with six different tracts.

An entire dissertation could be devoted to the use of demographic data in school districts. The original plan of gathering pertinent district and block summed data would have provided interesting descriptive information on the research sites. However, for a political study like this one, the demography data finally available offered little power for explaining the demographic or political nature of the research sites.

NATIVE PERSONS BY STATE OF BIRTH

Rural City

BORN IN STATE OF RESIDENCE	4,530
BORN OUTSIDE OF STATE OF RESIDENCE	
In Northeast	25
In North Central	410
In South	76
In West	52
BORN ABROAD, AT SEA, IN OUTLYING AREAS, ETC.	23
STATE OF BIRTH NOT REPORTED	130

PERSONS 5 YEARS OLD AND OVER BY RESIDENCE IN 1965

	Rural City
SAME HOUSE	2,935
DIFFERENT HOUSE	
Same County	1,473
DIFFERENT COUNTY	
Same State	270
DIFFERENT STATE	
Northeast	---
North Central	111
South	85
West	07
ABROAD, IN ARMED FORCES IN 1965	---
ABROAD, NOT IN ARMED FORCES IN 1965	---
MOVED, RESIDENCE IN 1965 NOT REPORTED	92

PERSONS 5 YEARS OLD AND OVER LIVING IN SMSA'S OR ADJACENT TRACTS BY RESIDENCE IN 1965

Rural City

SAME HOUSE	2,935
DIFFERENT HOUSE	
In Central City of this SMSA	---
In other part of this SMSA or adjacent tract	1,704
OUTSIDE THIS SMSA	
In North and West	156
In South	85
ABROAD IN 1965	---
MOVED, RESIDENCE IN 1965 NOT REPORTED	92

FAMILIES BY FAMILY INCOME

	Rural City
UNDER $1,000	27
$1,000-$1,999	38
$2,000-$2,999	57
$3,000-$3,999	70
$4,000-$4,999	99
$5,000-$5,999	121
$6,000-$6,999	118
$7,000-$7,999	96
$8,000-$8,999	83
$9,000-$9,999	150
$10,000-$11,999	159
$12,000-$14,999	116
$15,000-$24,999	114
$25,000-$49,999	50
$50,000 AND OVER	---
100% Population Count	5,003

FAMILIES BY FAMILY INCOME

Affluent Suburb's County School District

UNDER $1,000	37
$1,000-$1,999	15
$2,000-$2,999	43
$3,000-$3,999	27
$4,000-$4,999	43
$5,000-$5,999	109
$6,000-$6,999	47
$7,000-$7,999	96
$8,000-$8,999	133
$9,000-$9,999	73
$10,000-$11,999	240
$12,000-$14,999	354
$15,000-$24,999	924
$25,000-$49,999	285
$50,000 AND OVER	55
100% Population Count	455,020

FAMILIES BY FAMILY INCOME

Census Tracts Encompassing the Woodrow Wilson Elementary School Attendance Area

	TRACT 1	TRACT 2	TRACT 3	TRACT 4	TRACT 5	TRACT 6
UNDER $1,000	6	15	35	13	19	16
$1,000-$1,999	---	20	---	4	25	6
$2,000-$2,999	5	5	15	35	14	5
$3,000-$3,999	10	5	10	---	18	5
$4,000-$4,999	10	7	11	4	46	8
$5,000-$5,999	21	10	6	4	18	11
$6,000-$6,999	10	10	13	---	43	38
$7,000-$7,999	10	13	9	5	54	6
$8,000-$8,999	8	14	15	4	60	6
$9,000-$9,999	11	36	43	3	39	15
$10,000-$11,999	25	27	46	14	215	62
$12,000-$14,999	64	100	125	33	202	169
$15,000-$24,999	210	465	325	122	616	750
$25,000-$49,999	191	303	273	296	225	456
$50,000 AND OVER	44	23	50	63	28	5

PERSONS 5 YEARS OLD AND OVER BY RESIDENCE IN 1965

Affluent Suburb's County School District

SAME HOUSE	156,440
DIFFERENT HOUSE	
Same County	48,438
DIFFERENT COUNTY	
Same State	52,511
DIFFERENT STATE	
Northeast	23,571
North Central	18,929
South	44,596
West	21,674
ABROAD, IN ARMED FORCES IN 1965	4,423
ABROAD, NOT IN ARMED FORCES IN 1965	16,762
MOVED, RESIDENCE IN 1965 NOT REPORTED	27,177

PERSONS 5 YEARS OLD AND OVER BY RESIDENCE IN 1965

Census Tracts Encompassing the Woodrow Wilson Elementary School Attendance Area

	TRACT 1	TRACT 2	TRACT 3	TRACT 4	TRACT 5	TRACT 6
SAME HOUSE	1,092	1,996	1,627	1,162	1,048	3,341
DIFFERENT HOUSE						
Same County	368	241	224	81	639	414
DIFFERENT COUNTY						
Same State	192	387	272	364	543	560
DIFFERENT STATE						
Northeast	137	284	146	66	694	289
North Central	92	80	44	23	286	335
South	196	429	303	127	847	286
West	65	132	163	34	302	132
ABROAD, IN ARMED FORCES IN 1965	0	45	7	10	46	51
ABROAD, NOT IN ARMED FORCES IN 1965	50	262	217	129	110	365
MOVED, RESIDENCE IN 1965 NOT REPORTED	54	117	578	46	503	243

PERSONS 5 YEARS OLD AND OVER LIVING IN SMSA'S OR ADJACENT TRACTS BY RESIDENCE IN 1965

Affluent Suburb's County School District

SAME HOUSE	156,440
DIFFERENT HOUSE	
In Central City of this SMSA	—
In other part of this SMSA or adjacent tracts	99,540
OUTSIDE THIS SMSA	
In North and West	64,174
In South	46,004
ABROAD IN 1965	21,185
MOVED, RESIDENCE IN 1965 NOT REPORTED	27,117

PERSONS 5 YEARS OLD AND OVER LIVING IN SMSA'S OR ADJACENT TRACTS BY RESIDENCE IN 1965

Census Tracts Encompassing the Woodrow Wilson Elementary School Attendance Area

	TRACT 1	TRACT 2	TRACT 3	TRACT 4	TRACT 5	TRACT 6
SAME HOUSE	1,092	1,996	1,627	1,162	1,048	3,341
DIFFERENT HOUSE						
In Central City of this SMSA	—	—	—	—	—	—
In other part of this SMSA or adjacent tracts	615	680	507	470	1,371	916
OUTSIDE THIS SMSA						
In North and West	294	496	353	123	1,232	756
In South	141	337	292	102	658	334
ABROAD IN 1965	50	307	224	139	156	416
MOVED, RESIDENCE IN 1965 NOT REPORTED	54	117	578	46	503	243

NATIVE PERSONS BY STATE OF BIRTH

Affluent Suburb's County School District

BORN IN STATE OF RESIDENCE	128,254
BORN OUTSIDE OF STATE OF RESIDENCE	
In Northeast	76,627
In North Central	54,010
In South	119,357
In West	27,285
BORN ABROAD, AT SEA, IN OUTLYING AREAS, ETC.	12,206
STATE OF BIRTH NOT REPORTED	21,240

NATIVE PERSONS BY STATE OF BIRTH

Census Tracts Encompassing the Woodrow Wilson Elementary School Attendance Area

	TRACT 1	TRACT 2	TRACT 3	TRACT 4	TRACT 5	TRACT 6
BORN IN STATE OF RESIDENCE	757	717	587	504	995	1,350
BORN OUTSIDE OF STATE OF RESIDENCE						
In Northeast	439	953	694	526	1,345	1,020
In North Central	211	595	442	230	658	844
In South	656	1,319	998	479	1,444	1,722
In West	300	252	254	136	249	439
BORN ABROAD, AT SEA, IN OUTLYING AREAS, ETC.	22	132	99	48	132	291
STATE OF BIRTH NOT REPORTED	53	109	362	45	469	258

Appendix F

CASE STUDY OUTLINE

I. DISTRICT OVERVIEW

A. Degree of Urbanism, short history of city

B. Community Health (health, wealth, employment, and education, political representation)

C. Population growth rate

D. Poverty (% on welfare or other financial dependence)

E. Worker profile (unionization, blue collar/white collar, farming, ethnic/religious background)

II. SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AREA OVERVIEW

A. Historical background of school-attendance area; style and cost of homes

B. Degree of transcience, community growth

C. Poverty factor/wealth factor

D. Degree of homogeneity/heterogeneity

1. ethnic/religious backgrounds
2. values
3. educational philosophies
4. political affiliations

III. School History - District Level

A. Organization, Re-Organization History, Issues at District Level, History of Innovation

B. Educational effort (ppe vs. per capital wealth)

C. Tenure and Superintendent turnover

D. Organization of School Board

1. number on board, how selected

2. any possible issues in immediate past elections

3. any incumbent defeats lately

4. board meeting style (open debate, exec. sessions, fixed voting patterns

E. Teacher Unionism

III. School History - School-Attendance Area

F. Organizational history - before IGE, after IGE

G. Principal tenure, turnover, profile

H. Staff tenure, turnover, profile, how U.L. selected, how units made up, how aides selected, etc.

IV. ICE Implementation

A. Point of initiation for school system, for school-community

1. how, who, why, when, where

B. Staging of implementation (initiation, awareness, information, etc.) for school, school system, school-community

IV. IGE Implementation (continued. . .)

C. Management of Implementation

1. designate actors at school, at c.o., in s-c

D. Agreements with central office (what actors specifically) - staffing, in-service time, extra funds

V. IGE Information to S-C

Timing	Programs/Activities	Style	Respon.	S-C-Reaction
Awareness				
First Year				

VI. School history - first year of IGE implementation - as a function of s-c contact

A. Possible programmatic changes as a result of accommodation points

B. First year issues (as a result of implementation, information, accommodation)

C. Sense of Legitimation/S-C acceptance

Activity (Crisis = C; Planned = P; IGE Related = I; Past = Pa; Present = Pr; Future = F)

Source of Initiation

Who is Responsible?

Who Coordinates?

How was it organized?

How does it operate?

Who is involved and to what degree?

Results: Does the activity achieve its purpose? Suggestions for improvement.

VIII. Second year of IGE

A. Programmatic changes in school, in s-c program, meeting attendance, etc.

B. Issues, resolution, actors

C. Changes in c.o. agreements

IX. Summary - Strengths and Weaknesses of s-c program

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